



# Historical Geography of Britain and the British Empire

## BOOK II.

### THE EXPANSION AND CONSOLIDATION OF THE BRITISH EMPIRE

A.D. 1800 TO PRESENT DAY

BY

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# P R E F A C E.

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THESE books do not pretend to contain either a complete geography or history of the British Empire, but rather a judicious selection of facts showing the relation between geographical conditions and historical movements, and the stages in the gradual development of Britain and her Empire from earliest times to the present day.

Book I. is divided into three sections. The first part deals with the Making of England to the commencement of the sixteenth century, and not only traces the constitutional growth of England but shows how far geographical features influenced English character and history, and gradually fitted the race to control and govern that Great Empire which it was later to gain. The second part deals with the Making of the Empire from the beginning of the sixteenth century, when Britain took her share in the maritime discoveries of that period, to the end of the seventeenth century, when she had established herself both in the New World and in India and the Far East. The last part shows how Britain, by finally defeating her great rival France and by obtaining supremacy on the seas, was able to establish her Empire both in East and West.

Book II. treats of the Expansion and Consolidation of the British Empire from the nineteenth century to the present



day. Commencing with the great changes wrought by the Industrial Revolution, it passes to the expansion of the British Empire in Canada, Australasia and Africa, and shows how discovery, settlement and development of these areas were influenced by geographical features. A special section dealing with India and the Far East contains references to Russia's advance into Central Asia, and to the importance of the Straits Settlements, and the development of trade with China and Japan. Throughout both books special emphasis has been given to the influence of historical events upon the development of India.

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# HISTORICAL GEOGRAPHY OF BRITAIN AND THE BRITISH EMPIRE.

## *BOOK II.*

### *THE EXPANSION AND CONSOLIDATION OF THE BRITISH EMPIRE.*

*A.D. 1800 TO THE PRESENT DAY.*

## CHAPTER I.

### THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION.

**I**N the concluding chapter of the previous volume we tried to realise the result of the earlier French and later Napoleonic Wars on the final establishment of British supremacy on the seas, and also upon the foundation of a British Empire, both in the Eastern and Western Hemispheres. During this period great changes in the methods of producing goods were gradually being introduced, changes which were to have not only a great influence upon the occupations of the people of Britain, but also upon the functions and products of her great Dominions beyond the seas. This great change, known as the Industrial Revolution, was not a sudden upheaval but the gradual outcome of increased commercial demands, and the means of supplying them, and produced greater changes in the world than any other event in history.

In Book I. we have shown how Britain, from being a country dependent upon other nations for her commerce, had

gradually become mistress of the sea, and by trading on the great oceans had become the leading commercial nation of the world. In this book we shall seek to show how the inventions of the industrial period, by utilising her rich supplies of coal and iron, made her the most important manufacturing nation, and although commerce in no way decayed, but rather increased rapidly in growth, yet it became of secondary importance, and was subservient to the demands of her manufacturing peoples for supplies of raw material and food to employ and feed her dense industrial populations. Britain had travelled far in the path of progress, and now instead of sending her supplies of raw wool to Flanders to be manufactured, she required far more than the Mother Country could supply, and it was the necessity of finding supplies of wool and other raw products in addition to markets for the manufactured goods that led to the expansion of our great Empire.

No one at the time realised how the change to the employment of steam-driven machinery in our manufactures was going to affect not only Britain itself, but the world at large. To quote the words of a recent writer :—

“The conquest of Canada, the victories of Clive in India, the Seven Years War, the successful revolt of the American colonies, the Declaration of Independence, and the formation of the American Constitution, the deeds of Frederick the Great, Pitt’s accession to Power, Washington’s election to the Presidency, the fall of the old French Monarchy, the National Convention, all these great events which shook the world were contemporary with the industrial revolution in England; and that revolution was in promise and potency more important than them all.”

In the following pages we will consider some of the effects of this industrial revolution firstly upon the Mother Country, secondly upon the Empire, and lastly upon Britain’s commercial rivals. Before the age of these great inventions the

Domestic System had been in force. That is, the goods were manufactured in the peoples own homes, containing neither master nor servant; the whole family jointly contributed to produce by the labour of their own hands their piece of work. All the implements necessary were the property of the producers, and there was neither capitalist nor wage-receiver. The series of inventions introduced in the latter part of the eighteenth century put an end to the domestic system of production.

These inventions were first of all introduced in the cotton industry. Kaye of Bury invented the fly shuttle in 1750, an invention which enabled one man to weave a wider cloth at twice the speed. Even before the introduction of the shuttle the weaver had always been able to outpace the spinner. The spinning-jenny, invented by Hargreaves in 1765, enabled one man to work a number of spindles at the same time. This was a simple machine which could be and was used in the homes of the workers under the domestic system; but it could only produce the kind of thread known as weft. In 1769 Arkwright invented the water frame. Water-power was necessary to work this machine, and hence the "mill" or "factory" sprang up at the sides of streams. The water frame could spin both weft and warp, and Crompton's invention, known as the mule, made possible the spinning of thread, which was both fine and strong.

The spinner could now outpace the weaver; but the balance was restored by Cartwright's invention of the powerloom in 1785 which enabled the weaving process to be done by machinery. The application of steam to drive these various inventions has been proved to be a success. These machines were improved in many ways as time went on, and various technical processes such as bleaching, calendar printing, lace-making, etc., came to be done by machinery driven by steam.



These processes were first applied to the cotton, but the demand for "English cloth" which was noted for its excellence led to the adaptation of this machinery to the woollen industry, and later to the linen and silk industries.

Watt's success with the steam engine in 1776 made it necessary that attention should be given to the coal, iron and steel industries. Pumping engines were introduced into the mines and the power of steam began to be employed for hauling purposes. Iron rails were laid down in Coalbrookdale in 1767, and in 1815 the Davy Lamp was invented. Many technical improvements were made in the production of wrought iron, cast iron and steel. Bridges, ships, etc., were now made of iron, and the industries connected with coal and iron progressed with enormous strides. The application of steam to navigation was demonstrated to be possible in 1807, and Bell's "Comet" plied regularly on the Clyde in 1813. The Atlantic was first crossed by a steamboat in 1819, and by 1840 the Cunard Company had a fleet of steamships built at Glasgow.

Stephenson constructed his first engine in 1814, and in 1823 he became chief engineer to the Stockton and Darlington Railway, while in 1830 the Liverpool and Manchester Railway was opened.

From the above outline it can be gathered that there was a tremendous increase in the output of goods. More was produced than was needed by the existing population and exports and imports increased enormously. Under this new system of industry men specialised in a trade or in a single process of a trade. There was every reason for an increase in facilities for communication, not only with the outside world but with the various parts of the islands, and the record of improvements in roads, and of the construction of canals and railways is a very striking one. In connection with road construction the names of Metcalf, Telford, and Macadam are

noteworthy. No serious attempt had been made to deal with roads from the time of the Roman occupation until 1745, when the difficulty of mobilising the troops against the Pretender's invasion, brought the question home to the Government. In canal construction the name of Brindley is noteworthy. He led the way with the construction of a canal connecting Manchester and Worsley and this simplified the transport of coal to the cotton centres from the Duke of Bridgewater's estate at Worsley.

Contemporary with this industrial revolution improved methods were adopted in farming. Small farms were grouped to form large areas, and the small owners were now forced either to become labourers or to resort to some other means of obtaining a livelihood. Open fields were replaced by enclosed farms. Considerable improvements were made in agriculture, and the soil produced much more than had been possible hitherto.

We will now consider some of the results of this revolution upon the social lives of the people, and with it we must couple the results of the Napoleonic Wars. We have already seen that the domestic system of industry decayed, and the workers became entirely dependent upon wages. Work was done on a large scale in factories. To carry on large scale production of this kind much capital is required, and, as a consequence, in our country a system became general in which on one side we have an employer who owns the building, the machinery, the raw material for the industry—the capital, in short—and on the other, the worker who sells his labour. It was natural that in the nineteenth century associations of workmen sprang up, the object of which was to protect the general interests of the workers. Women and children were employed to work and feed the machines in the factories. The treatment of the children and their conditions of work soon became a matter of grave concern to the more thoughtful

section of society, and very early in the nineteenth century we find that Factory Acts were passed to regulate the conditions of work.

It is important also to notice that factories naturally sprang up where there were plentiful supplies of coal and iron, and as the north of England is particularly rich in both these minerals, its population increased rapidly and numerous manufacturing towns sprang up at the foot of the Pennines. The rich supplies of coal and iron in the Midlands caused the growth of a number of towns such as Birmingham, and similarly there were dense populations on the South Wales coalfields. In many cases these workers had migrated to the towns from the country owing to the decay of the domestic system, and in the towns they found many more opportunities to combine and agitate for political and social reform than when they lived in scattered country districts.

One of the immediate results of the industrial revolution was the temporary unemployment among many old-fashioned workers who would not shift to the towns and work in the factories. Added to these were many small yeoman farmers, who owing to the grouping of many small farms together as one farm, were out of work. To meet the cost of the Napoleonic Wars taxation was very high and large increases in the prices of food caused much distress, while the bad administration of the Poor Law did not tend to improve matters. This distress among the masses found expression in the Gordon Riots, and the Government had a difficult problem to solve. Among the remedies suggested for the unemployment was the encouragement of emigration to the colonies by giving grants to the settlers.

The ultimate result of the Napoleonic Wars was to cause a large increase in manufactures and to make Great Britain the first industrial nation of the world. It should be noted in this connection that Great Britain as an island nation had

been little devastated by the wars which had laid waste great parts of Europe, and therefore at their termination was in the best position to repair the damage and reconstruct Europe. Thus while other nations were recovering Britain was able to progress rapidly and the demand for British goods rapidly increased. The construction of railways on the European mainland, the building of harbours, and the application of steam to ships facilitated this export and the delivery of goods to all parts of Europe. The Exhibition in 1851 was an outward expression of this British prosperity.

Although the ultimate result of the Napoleonic Wars was an advantage to Britain, yet we have seen that much distress followed their immediate termination, caused by the high prices of food and other necessities of life. At that time taxes were laid on all goods which came into the country and it was felt by many political reformers that the removal of these taxes, by allowing the free import of cheap food stuffs to feed the increasing populations of our manufacturing towns, and raw material required for our manufactures, would add to our industrial advantages. These views were expressed in a well-known book, Adam Smith's *Wealth of Nations*, and from the time of the younger Pitt onward modifications took place in the British custom's tariff. Among the articles taxed was corn. In this case a sliding scale was in force, which guaranteed to the British farmer a certain return for his labours. By this means if the British crop was plentiful little was allowed to be imported, but if scarce, then a greater import was encouraged. Modifications of the Corn Laws in 1843, which gave preference to corn from Canada, did not meet the wishes of the most ardent of these reformers. These founded at Manchester an Anti-Corn Law League, and amongst their most prominent members were Cobden and Bright. The Anti-Corn Law League was supported by the manufacturers, who demanded cheaper raw material, and by

the workmen, who demanded cheap food. In 1846 Peel succeeded in repealing the Corn Laws, and later taxes were removed from all necessary food stuffs, raw materials, and manufactured goods. The immediate effect was a reduction in the price of food ; but this was more than counter-balanced to the workman by a reduction in wages.

It was thought by Cobden and Bright that if Britain adopted Free Trade other countries would soon follow suit and remove their tariffs, and a large increase in international commerce would result. The experience of later years has however proved that when these countries recovered from the Napoleonic Wars and became rivals to Britain in their industrial and commercial supremacy, they fostered their own trade by putting heavy taxes on British imports, and used the money to subsidise other industries in which they tried to capture the British market.

Much discontent also existed at the end of the eighteenth and beginning of the nineteenth centuries at the methods of electing members of Parliament, and agitation took place, especially in the manufacturing centres, for some electoral reform. Methods of choosing these members differed in different boroughs ; sometimes they were chosen by the Corporation, sometimes by the members of guilds. Since 1677 no new boroughs had been erected, hence the new manufacturing towns like Leeds, Birmingham and Manchester, returned no members to Parliament, while places which had declined in importance and now were mere villages returned perhaps two members. In most boroughs there were comparatively few electors, and these were often dependent on the neighbouring landlord who compelled them to vote for his nominee. Boroughs having the right of Parliamentary representation were openly sold to the highest bidder, and Party funds were often spent, in thus ensuring a majority in the House of Commons. The first proposal for reform came

from the Younger Pitt in George III.'s reign. He proposed to buy up all these "rotten boroughs" and give their members to other and larger places. Nothing was, however, done until after the Napoleonic Wars, when Earl Grey and Lord John Russell headed a party for Parliamentary reform. In 1830 the Whigs under Grey came into office, and the following year Russell introduced his Reform Bill which, after passing through the Commons, was rejected by the House of Lords. Only the threat that sufficient numbers of new peers would be created to secure a majority for the Bill in the Upper House made the peers give way. Under this Reform Bill the qualification for a county vote was either the possession of property worth £10 a year or a tenancy of £50 per year. In the boroughs votes were given to tenants occupying a house worth £10 or more per year. Coupled with this new franchise was a complete redistribution of seats, many of the old boroughs were disenfranchised, while others had their members reduced from two to one.

The passing of the Bill caused a revolution in political affairs. Power was transferred from the rich landed class to the middle classes, but the working men mostly had no votes. A demand for universal suffrage by the working classes, who were dissatisfied with the result of their agitation, led to the formation of the People's Charter, and the Chartists' riots followed. Birmingham was wrecked by the mobs, as also was Newport, but although the Chartists sent numerous petitions to Parliament the Government refused to consider their proposed reforms, and it was not until 1872 that the Secret Ballot was introduced.

Among the many measures passed by this Reformed Parliament were acts dealing with the administration of local government including Poor Law, the Abolition of Slavery, and the establishment of the Penny Post. The name of William Wilberforce will always be associated with the

Abolition of Slavery as he spent a large period of his life in trying to attain this necessary reform, while Rowland Hill's name is equally famous for the work he did in establishing the Penny Post.

We will now transfer our attention from the domestic policy of the Mother Country to that of the Empire. For nearly a century following the loss of our American colonies there was a lack of interest in our colonial affairs. It became a doctrine of many politicians that "a colony is like a fruit which, when ripe, naturally falls from the tree," and it was felt that the other British colonies when sufficiently strong would throw off the yoke of the Mother Country. There was a popular indifference to the colonies and an absolute lack of Imperial spirit. As yet Britain had not learned the lesson from the loss of the United States. She did not yet realise that self-supporting and progressive possessions are not to be treated as mere customers for our goods to be used to enhance the wealth of the Mother Country, but as partners in a great Commonwealth in which the whole Empire is concerned. In the succeeding chapters we shall note several instances of this indifference of the Mother Country and be able to trace some of the evil effects of this indifference.

The Industrial Revolution did more to bring home to the Mother Country the necessity for Imperial partnership than any wars could have done. The accelerated production of manufactures due to the invention of machinery caused an increased demand for raw products which the home country could not supply, together with the need for new markets for our manufactured goods. These two demands were largely met by our colonial possessions as also was the increased demand for food products for the increasing manufacturing populations. Railways and steamships by annihilating space brought the colonies in closer touch with one another and with the Mother Country, and the invention of electricity and the laying of

the great oceanic cables brought them into closer contact still. Commercial men in the Mother Country began at last to realise the aims and difficulties of our countrymen in these newly settled lands and how a closer partnership with them would be to the mutual advantage of both the colonial and the dweller in the homeland; while a reformed House of Parliament was anxious to grant to these colonies self-governing privileges similar to those which the Mother Country enjoyed.

This chapter would be incomplete without a reference to the countries of the European mainland and the relations of the Mother Country with them. The most prominent of foreign secretaries in the British Cabinet after the Napoleonic Wars was Canning, who adopted a policy of interference in defence of free governments and small nations. Thus he protected Portugal from Spain and France and persuaded Russia and France to join him in saving Greece. This policy was generous and secured Britain's influence among the smaller powers and increased our South American trade, but it tended to unite the great powers against us, and upset the "Balance of Power" which Castlereagh had established. Among these great powers there was a "Holy Alliance" to defend the principles of absolute monarchy. This alliance was formed by Russia, Austria, and Prussia, while France and Spain were supposed to have tendencies in the same direction.

After the recovery of the European nations from the devastating effects of the Napoleonic Wars they also profited by the industrial revolution. Railways were constructed rapidly and soon all parts of Europe were linked to each other by a network of railways. The navigation of the rivers was improved by artificial means and long navigable rivers were connected to one another by canals, thus providing a cheap means of transporting food and raw material from the coasts inland to the coalfields, and exporting manufactured



articles from these areas. The application of steam to drive machinery and inventions in textile and other machinery were soon adopted on the continent and led to a rapid increase in manufactured goods which rivalled those of Britain.

Among these industrial rivals Germany requires special mention. We have noticed in the previous volume the rise of Prussia under Frederick the Great. The remaining states of Germany, realising that they were too small in themselves to become important factors in European commerce, combined with Prussia to form the German Empire with the King of Prussia as German Emperor or Kaiser. This strong combination under a powerful head became a dangerous rival to Britain's greatness. Second only to Britain in the value of her supplies of coal and iron she not only manufactured her own supplies of wool and flax, but also imported these and raw cotton and silk. Everything that the trained scientist could devise was used to increase these and other manufactures. Heavy tariffs on imported goods and subsidies to encourage growing manufactures, together with a wonderful business organisation which reached to all parts of the world made Germany a commercial menace to Britain and other countries. The German Empire suffered, however, from one great drawback. The combination of the German states into one great power came after Britain and other nations had built up their colonial empires, and, except for a few possessions in Africa, the colony of Tsing-tau in Northern China, and a few islands in the Southern Pacific, this great Empire had no possessions. The demands for fields of emigration for her overcrowded population, a greater control of the raw products of the world, and a larger share in the world's markets were probably some of the most important reasons that led Germany to declare war in 1914.

To the south-east of Germany lies a large area containing many different races of people once dominated by

the strong power of the Hapsburgs who ruled at Vienna. The true Austrians who form but a small fraction of the entire population, are similar in characteristics to the German, and hence the natural alliance between these peoples during the later part of the nineteenth century. As an industrial power Austria-Hungary took second place, for except in Bohemia, where textile and other manufactures are carried on, the remainder of the country is mainly agricultural.

In the Balkan Peninsula, which occupies south-east Europe, we find the opposite process taking place to that which happened in Germany. The weak government of Turkey over a mixed race of people, caused the dismemberment of the area into a number of independent states, and all that now remains of the Turkish Empire in Europe is the Plain of Thrace, upon which stands Constantinople guarding the entrance to the Black Sea.

The eastern part of Europe formed the great Russian Empire. From the time of Peter the Great, who extended the boundaries of Finland to the Baltic, Russia increased in size until it occupied half of Europe and twice that area in Asia. Russia therefore became the second largest Empire in the world. The utilisation of her long navigable rivers delayed the construction of railways until after the Crimean War. The drawback of having no ice-free port on an open sea in Europe, made her construct a railway across Siberia to Vladivostock. Along the line of this railway she has irrigated and cultivated land which before was unproductive. The extension of this railway through Manchuria and Korea led to war with Japan, which resulted in her evacuation of these areas and the transfer of the control of these areas to the latter country.

Rich supplies of coal and iron and a converging network of railways to the North Sea ports made Belgium specialise

in railway plant, while geographical conditions and the introduction of machinery favoured the development of textile manufactures. Holland is mainly a poor unproductive country, but its position as the outlet of much of the trade of Western Germany, Belgium and Northern France, has given it a commercial importance as one of the trading nations of the world.

The extension of the Belgian coalfield into Northern France and the coalfields in the Rhone valley gave France an opportunity to manufacture. Modern invention has freed Switzerland from all the geographical disadvantages of a mountain area. Not only has the construction of railways brought to this area tourists from all parts, but it has allowed the easy import of silk and cotton which are manufactured by machinery driven by the water power from the mountain streams.

The natural laziness of the people, the want of capital, and the lack of coal, prevented Spain from ever recovering her lost greatness after the Peninsular War, and she now holds a minor position among the nations of the world, her rich supplies of metallic ores being chiefly worked by British capital. The opening of the Suez Canal turned the Mediterranean once more into one of the great highways of modern commerce, and of the Mediterranean countries, Italy has utilised her position the most. Railways which tunnel the Alps connect her with all parts of Europe, and quite apart from the full development of her own resources she has a large continental trade. Her one great drawback is her want of coal, but of recent years she has come to the forefront as one of the leading nations of Europe.

We will now cross the Atlantic to the United States of America and briefly survey the rapid development of that great nation, equal in area to Europe. The states which we lost at the American War of Independence occupied the

Atlantic coastal plain, but roads, and later a network of railways, were taken from New York through the Hudson-Mohawk to the Central Plain beyond. This great plain forming the Mississippi Basin consisted in the east of rich fertile grass land only waiting for the plough. Here could be produced large supplies of wheat, maize, cotton, and tobacco, enough to supply the needs of these people, and to export in large quantities to the manufacturing areas of Europe. Maize was used to fatten cattle and pigs while large numbers of oxen also roamed the drier grass lands of the west. Cotton found a ready market in Britain but now America uses large quantities of this cotton in her own mills. The richest supplies of coal, iron, copper, lead, and petroleum in the world gave her an impetus for manufacture and soon she became one of Britain's most dangerous rivals. The discovery of gold and silver in the western mountains caused the extension of the railways westward, and these have now been taken across the difficult mountain barriers to such ports as San Francisco, from which steamers cross the Pacific to Japan and China.

Japan, occupying a position in the Pacific similar to that of the British Isles in the Atlantic, but shut off from all traces of Western civilisation by the mountain barriers of Central Asia, developed a civilisation entirely her own. The construction of trans-continental railways both across America and Asia and the passage of modern steamships across the Pacific Ocean, linked the Far East to the Far West. Since then Japan has not been slow to adopt Western ideas and inventions, and has become an important commercial and manufacturing nation able to hold her own in the markets of the world, and having an army and a navy equal to those of a European nation. The untold supplies of coal, iron, and copper in China, and the full utilisation of the immense resources of this large area may cause this nation

later to become a formidable rival for the trade of the world.

In the succeeding chapters we are going to study the expansion and consolidation of the British Empire to the present time. This expansion, coupled with the attacks of dangerous rivals from without, presents new difficulties and new problems to be faced. If we are to hold our own, the bonds of Empire must be knit still closer together, and all who share in the privileges of its government must be prepared to share in its responsibilities. With the rapid march of events old ideas will have to give way to modern solutions of new dangers. Domestic affairs will have to be separated entirely from Imperial necessities, and federations of each part of the Empire will be necessary to consider how best each dominion can help the other and the Mother Country.

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## CHAPTER II.

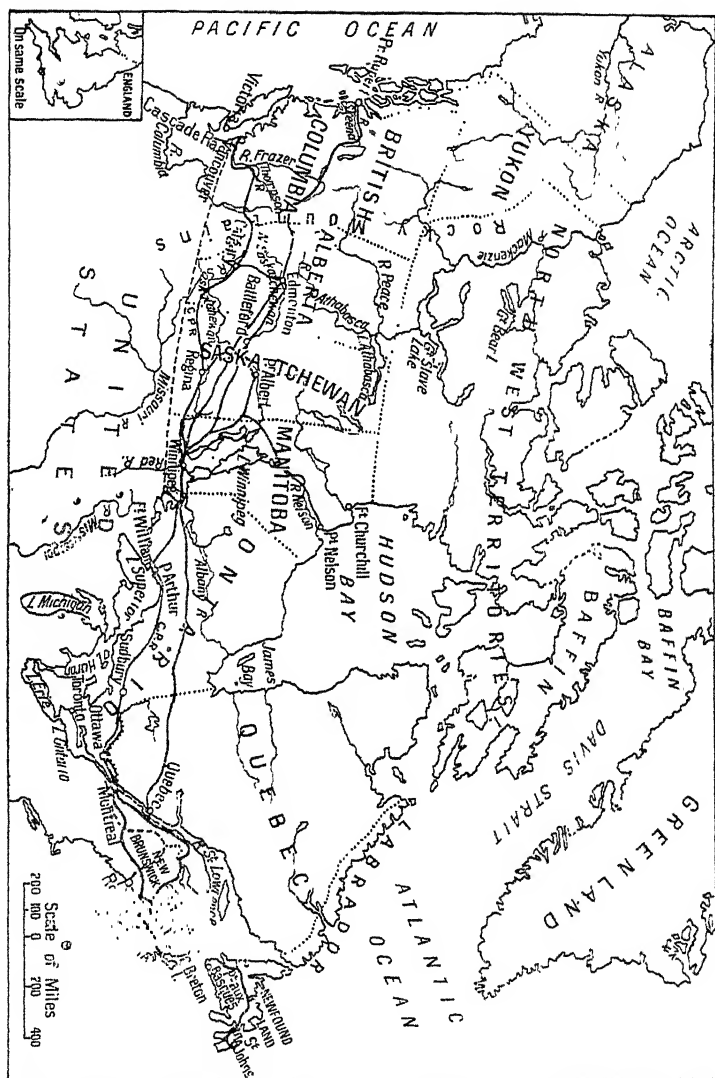
### THE DOMINION OF CANADA.

IN our study of the expansion of the British Empire we will first turn to the New World, where in the northern half of North America lies the great Dominion of Canada. Already in Book I. we have learnt something about the St. Lawrence and the Great Lakes and how French settlements were made along its banks, but it should be noted that the Canada which was transferred to Britain after the French War formed only a small part of the Dominions as we now know them, and Britons at that time did not realise that it was going to develop into a large self-governing

possession equal in area to the continent of Europe, any more than they thought the States, which were lost to the American colonists, would one day expand across the continent and become one of the foremost nations of the world.

A study of the political map of Canada will show that Quebec occupies both banks of the lower course of the St. Lawrence, and extends northward to James Bay and the Labrador Peninsula. It was in this area, especially near the river, that the French settlers lived, and after the capitulation of Montreal in 1760 came under the control of the British Government. Owing largely to the wise methods adopted by the Home Government, which not only allowed the people the use of their own language but did not disturb their religious and civil rights, the whole population, almost exclusively of French Catholic origin, became loyal citizens of the Empire despite attempts both by the French and the American colonists to transfer their allegiance. General Amherst, assisted by an Advisory Council, governed the country under semi-military rule until the passing of the Quebec Act in 1774. This Act, opposed by many New England immigrants, recognised the Roman Catholic Religion and allowed the parochial clergy to receive the same dues as in earlier times. It also set up a Government to be administered by a nominated council. Conciliatory methods such as these were answerable for the loyalty of the French-Canadians, who assisted to defend their colony against the attacks of American colonists and caused them to hold aloof from the overtures of the French monarch, Louis XVI.

The other colony, containing many French peoples, was Nova Scotia, formerly known as Acadia. This had, since 1604 when the French established a settlement of woodcutters at Port Royal, been transferred several times between France and England. In 1710 Port Royal fell to a strong force of British troops and Acadia passed into British hands,



while in 1749, Halifax was founded as the capital and chief naval station. In 1755, owing to the failure of the French population to take the oath of allegiance, many of the inhabitants were deported to other parts of America, and this action is adversely criticised in Longfellow's well known poem *Evangeline*.

After the American War of Independence many of the loyalists from the central and southern Atlantic states of America emigrated to Canada, some to Nova Scotia, but the majority to the upper course of the St. Lawrence and the Lake Peninsula, where they formed the British province of Ontario or Upper Canada. The influx of large numbers of emigrants caused New Brunswick, to the west of Nova Scotia, to be constituted a separate colony in 1784.

The immigration of a large British element, requiring as much consideration as the French, led to new problems for the consideration of the Home Government. The Canada Act of 1791 constituted Quebec or Lower Canada, and Ontario or Upper Canada, two distinct provinces and gave to each self-government by an elected Assembly similar to the House of Commons, although the Legislative Council appointed by the Crown had the greater power. For twenty years Canada steadily progressed, Upper Canada, mainly British and following the Protestant religion, dwelling peacefully with Lower Canada which was French and Roman Catholic in its civil and religious institutions. In 1812 the United States, acting in concert with Napoleon, made an attack on Canada, and although the brunt of the fighting fell upon the British settlers of Upper Canada, yet their loyalty and support was not exceeded by the French-Canadians who had no sympathies with Napoleon or the Revolutionaries.

Sufficient has now been written to show that the only settled provinces at the commencement of the nineteenth century were Ontario, Quebec, Nova Scotia, and New Bruns-



wick, to which must be added Cape Breton and Prince Edward islands, the latter added to our dominions in 1753. To the west of this settled area lay a vast territory reaching from the lakes in the south to the Arctic Ocean in the north, and from Hudson Bay in the east to the Rockies in the west, the whole being controlled by the Hudson Bay Company.

Now turn to a map of Canada in your atlas and we will try to understand what this area includes. On the west the parallel ranges of the Rocky Mountains, towering above the snow line, border the Central Plain. From their base the Central Plain slopes gradually westward to a trough, which is roughly parallel with the shores of Hudson Bay. If you look at your map you will be able to trace this trough by a line of lakes, Great Slave Lake and Athabasca, belonging to the Mackenzie Basin: Winnipeg, drained by the Nelson to the Hudson Bay, and Superior, Huron, and Ontario, belonging to the St. Lawrence system.

Observe the rivers which drain this region. From the Rockies descend both the Athabasca and Peace rivers and these unite to form the Mackenzie, a river of little commercial importance because it flows through barren lands in its lower course and empties to the Arctic Ocean. The sources of this Peace-Mackenzie system are not far removed from the northern and southern branches of the Saskatchewan, which flows to Lake Winnipeg. Notice the Red River which rises near the sources of the St. Lawrence and Mississippi, and runs to Lake Winnipeg. This river flows through a fertile trough which once formed the bed of a larger lake, and it is this old lake-bed which now forms the richest wheat lands of Manitoba.

Hudson Bay and the lands surrounding it resemble a saucer. From its shallow waters there is a gradual slope to a brink-edge overlooking the trough mentioned in an earlier paragraph. From this brink edge rivers obstructed

by waterfalls drain through the forested areas of Ontario and Quebec to the St. Lawrence, while on the south-east the gradual slopes surrounding Hudson Bay form the low Plateau of Labrador.

In the north, the lands bordering the Arctic Ocean and Hudson Bay, together with the islands, form barren tundra. Here a long cold dark winter, when everything is frozen, is succeeded by a short bright summer. The climate forbids the growth of any plants except lichens and mosses. The Tundras reach much farther southward in the east, where they border Hudson Bay and even form the northern half of the Labrador Peninsula. This is due, not only to the prevailing winds which blow from land to sea, but also to the cold Arctic currents which wash these shores. South of this, and stretching obliquely from the Rockies in the north-west to the south of the St. Lawrence in the east is a forest belt. The southern border of this belt consists of plentiful supplies of timber-bearing trees, where the noise of the woodman's axe has driven the fur-bearing animals to the poor regions farther north.

The oblique direction of the forest belt leaves a large area reaching from Lake Superior in the east to the base of the Rockies in the west, and occupied chiefly by the basins of those rivers flowing to Lake Winnipeg. This region, shut off from the influence of the sea, has a rather extreme climate and little rainfall, but the dry, cold winters are succeeded by a wet spring and the rains of this season, together with the melting snows, provide moisture at the period when it is required. The great wheat lands of Manitoba and Saskatchewan require their moisture in the early stages of the growth of the wheat, while the dry hot summer will do much to ripen this cereal. This moisture in spring has enabled the wheat lands to be extended much farther westward, and it is possible that what now

forms the cattle ranches of Alberta may one day be turned into wheat lands.

Over tundra, forest, and grassy plain, the Hudson Company for years held full control. Much of the land had never been properly explored, although Mackenzie, a Scottish settler, in 1798 traced the course of the river which bears his name from Lake Athabasca to the Arctic Seas, and in a second journey traced the course of the Peace tributary to the base of the Rockies, and then succeeded in crossing the parallel ridges of the Rockies and eventually reached the Pacific Ocean. Other explorers, early in the nineteenth century, explored the Polar Seas west of Hudson Bay, the most noted of whom were Parry and Franklin, who made vain attempts to find the north-west passage leading from the Atlanticto the Pacific Ocean.

It was in 1670 that the Hudson Bay Company secured the grant of this vast territory which was shut off from the French Canada of that period by dense forests and unnavigable streams. From 1671 onwards, storehouses were built on James Bay and pioneers sent up country to trade with the native American Indians, but the whole region was never properly developed, and so long as the natives brought in rich supplies of furs to the forts they were unmolested. Changes were, however, bound to take place. Its exclusive trading privileges aroused the opposition of many adventurers, while the North-West Company of Montreal was a powerful rival, whose operations extended westwards to the Rocky Mountains. At home in Britain, heavy taxation, coupled with a succession of bad harvests, caused a large number of people to emigrate. Twenty thousand Scottish peasants settled in Cape Breton Island alone, while another band colonised Prince Edward Island.

Among the new emigrants were numerous Irishmen, and a number of Scottish Highlanders settled in the Red River

Basin at Fort Garry, on the site of which was to be built Winnipeg, the capital of Manitoba and the centre of the great wheat belt. Manitoba was the first slice of territory to be taken from the Hudson Company whose rights were bought out in 1869, and from that time the Company as a controlling factor ceased to exist, although it still occupied forts on Hudson Bay and entered into open competition with other traders in the purchase of furs.

We will now leave the Central Plain for a while and study the western coasts and the Highland mass which separates them from the remainder of the continent. The parallel ranges of the snow-capped Rockies are separated from the forested Cascades which border the coast, by the Yukon Plateau in the far north and the Plateau of British Columbia farther south. These plateaux are drained by the Yukon, Skeena, Frazer, and Columbia rivers which, having a zig-zag course in their passage through the Rockies, cross the plateau and descend through the Cascades to the coast. This is bordered by a chain of islands the largest of which is Vancouver, the whole forming the remains of a coastal chain.

The prevailing winds on this coast are "the westerlies" which, coming from the Pacific, cause these shores to have an equable climate with much rain throughout the year, while a warm drift current from the Asiatic shores tends to make the climate still more equable. Inland on the plateau the conditions are much drier, although by irrigation the greater part of it in the south is placed under cultivation.

In addition to the work of Sir Alexander Mackenzie on this Pacific coast, mention must also be made of Captain James Cook and his able assistant George Vancouver. The latter, in 1792, carefully surveyed the whole of this coast and circumnavigated the island which now bears his name, while

the work of Frazer and David Thomson in exploring the interior, is shown in the names of the rivers. British Columbia having a climate similar to our own and specially suitable for colonisation, remained, however, a no man's land for some considerable period. The great mountain mass shut off this region from the world. No railway as yet linked it to the Atlantic, no steamers yet crossed the Pacific to the Asiatic shores. Until that time came, British Columbia was on the outer margin of the commercial world and its rich resources in gold, silver, copper, and coal, the timber supplies of its forests, the salmon of its rivers, the fruit and wheat grown on its irrigated plateaux, were not fully developed. In 1858 gold caused a rush of immigrants to this state, and in seven years five million pounds worth of gold was extracted. Now the placer diggings have been superseded by mining from the quartz, and rich reefs provide a profitable and steady source of income, while the supplies of silver and gold are also valuable. In 1858 British Columbia was taken from the Hudson Bay Company and in 1864 was granted the privilege of self-government, while in 1871 it was admitted into the Dominion of Canada.

We will now consider the steps which eventually led to the self-government of the Canadian Dominions, a government which gives its peoples practically free control of their affairs and yet at the same time knits closer the bonds of Empire between the Dominion and the Mother Country. The years following the final conquest of Canada were marked by a demand for greater constitutional privileges. The social and economic distress which followed the Napoleonic Wars, caused largely by heavy taxation and years of famine, led to a large influx of peoples from the Mother Country. This additional population was thought by the French people to be a menace to their racial privileges. In Upper Canada friction was caused by the extensive grants of lands allotted

to the support of the Anglican Church. In both states there was a demand for constitutional privileges beyond those awarded by the Canada Act of 1791. The settlers were considerably influenced in these demands by reform agitations in England, and also by the growth of Republican institutions in the United States. Movements in favour of independence were led in Upper Canada by a Scotsman named Mackenzie and in Quebec by a Frenchman named Papineau. Although these rebellions were easily stamped out yet good resulted, because Lord Durham, an able statesman, who had just been appointed High Commissioner, was asked to report on the grievances of the settlers. His able and exhaustive report led to the passing of the Reunion Act in 1840, which not only united the two provinces under one Parliament but gave the settlers a full measure of responsibility, not only in the control of local affairs, but also in the Legislature. From this time onward, Canada was allowed to make her own constitutional reforms, and soon after the Church became entirely voluntary, state-endowment being abolished and the lands formerly allocated to them were used for educational and other purposes. One of the reforms suggested in Lord Durham's report was a federation of the whole of the newly settled lands under one Central Parliament, and the result of this was seen in 1867 when the British North America Act recognised the federation of Ontario, Quebec, New Brunswick, and Nova Scotia, into one Dominion. To this was subsequently added Ruperts Land and Manitoba in 1870, British Columbia in 1871, Saskatchewan and Alberta, and all other territories of British North America, except Newfoundland, by 1880. It was soon felt, however, especially by the outlying states, that if this Dominion Parliament was to work for the common good of this great region, some means must be devised to bring the people into closer touch with each other, and with the Federal Government at Ottawa.

Thus came the demand for a railway, and in 1880 the Dominion Parliament granted £5,000,000 for its construction. From Montreal and Quebec to the copper producing area of Sudbury, thence to Port Arthur, the river port of Lake Superior, and then through the wheat lands, *via* Winnipeg and Regina to Calgary, the centre of the cattle lands of Alberta, was an enormous distance. The greatest difficulty, however, was yet to come—the negotiation of the mountain barrier of the Rockies. This was done by means of zig-zag loops carried through some of the finest scenery in the world. From thence the railway was taken along the valleys of the Thomson and Frazer rivers to Vancouver, opposite the island of the same name. Thus were the products of this great dominion brought to the Atlantic coasts and so to the shores of Europe. No longer was British Columbia isolated from the commercial world, but this railway development, coupled with the growth of a steamship trade with the Asiatic ports of China and Japan, provided the necessary links in the chain of routes connecting both the eastern and western shores of the Old and New Worlds to one another.

Other railways were also constructed, chief among which was the one to Halifax and St. John, ports of Nova Scotia and New Brunswick, which are ice-free in winter and allow of the Canadian liners landing their passengers when Montreal and Quebec are ice-bound. Another important route leads southward into the Lake Peninsula between Lakes Huron, Erie, and Ontario. Branches from Winnipeg lead northward to Edmonton, and Winnipeg is now linked by railway to the Hudson Bay ports. Many other railways are in course of construction, notably one running westward from Quebec to Winnipeg and thence north-westward to Prince Rupert at the mouth of the Skeena River. The construction of these railways will open up large areas where fertile soil and rich resources have never yet been developed.

Canada is a storehouse of great possibilities and by wise and careful government and the application of modern inventions, can be made to produce enormous food supplies and mineral wealth which will find a ready market in the Mother Country. She requires, however, for her full development two things: firstly, the construction of numerous railways to bring all her products within easy access of the world's markets; and secondly, a constant supply of labour. To the surplus population of Britain, Canada extends open arms. Her great west presents huge possibilities to the industrious agriculturist who can reap a rich reward for hard work and endurance of some hardship. Let us for a moment briefly survey some of its great economic resources.

Stretching from Hudson Bay southward to the St. Lawrence and south of it both in Nova Scotia and New Brunswick is a forest region. In the north where, owing to the colder climate, the stunted trees are of little value for timber, this part forms a valuable fur preserve in which are found the bear, marten, sable, silver fox, beaver, mink, skunk, and other fur-bearing animals. The more southerly forests, particularly in the basin of the St. Lawrence, are now useful for their timber. In the winter, when the frozen snow makes possible good temporary roads, the trees are cut down and hauled to the nearest ice-bound river, there to await the spring floods caused by the melting snow. Those rivers draining from the north to the St. Lawrence are obstructed by waterfalls and these are utilised to turn the saw-mills. Ottawa on the Ottawa River, the capital of Canada, is the centre of the lumber industry, and Montreal, in addition to being a lumber port, has leather industries dependent on the bark obtained from the forests, while its manufacture of agricultural implements and locomotives is due to its proximity to iron supplies and the demand of the western prairies



which are linked to it by rail. During recent years there has been an increasing production of wood pulp in the forest area, which is largely used in the manufacture of paper. In order to maintain supplies of timber reafforestation principles are in force, and the children in the forest area each plant a young tree on a day specially set apart.

The Lake Peninsula, one of the earliest settled parts of Canada, was once forested and the land cleared for the cultivation of wheat, but the production of that grain on the more western prairies caused the peoples to adopt mixed farming, and to-day they produce large quantities of apples and other fruit and cheese which are exported to Europe. Apples are also produced in Nova Scotia.

Nova Scotia and New Brunswick, together with Cape Breton and Prince Edward Islands, have rich supplies of coal and iron in addition to other mineral wealth, while the shallow seas which surround these shores abound in fish and cod, mackerel and herring are caught in large quantities.

North of the Great Lakes are the Laurentian fields which contain valuable supplies of petroleum, iron, silver, lead, zinc, gypsum asbestos, and copper, the last named being mined near Sudbury.

West of the forest belt and reaching to the base of the Rockies was originally grass land, upon which roamed the native Indians. The rich soils of the Red River Basin, especially near the railways, were the first to be developed and Winnipeg, the capital of Manitoba, has grown from a mere village to a town of over 100,000 people. Soil and climate will allow of the extension of these lands farther west, almost to the base of the Rockies, in grass lands which are now used for cattle grazing. The application of steam tractors enables large quantities of wheat to be grown, and with the future development of railways and the influx of

a larger population, Canada will be able materially to increase her export to the Mother Country.

Mention has already been made of the mineral and vegetable resources of British Columbia. The coal found in the Kicking Horse and Crow's Nest Passes is used on the railways and that found in Vancouver Island for shipping. The discovery of gold at Klondyke on the Alaskan border at the close of the nineteenth century, attracted many prospectors to this cold and unproductive region, and in connection therewith a railway was built from Skagway to Dawson City where the River Yukon leaves British Territory. The remaining lands are known as the North-West Territories and occupy the thinly-peopled tundra or barren land and the Northern Forest Zone. Except for a few white fur traders the population consists of native Indians.

Before closing this chapter it will be well to consider the Canadian boundaries. Those of Quebec, New Brunswick, and Nova Scotia, on the south and west, were decided by the peace of 1783, while a further treaty in 1842 decided the boundary of Maine. The boundary of the newly discovered lands remained still to be settled. By the Line of Tordesillas (*see* Book I.) the Spaniards claimed the whole west coasts of North America and when in 1819, these rights were ceded to the United States, conflict arose with the British Government who claimed all the lands north of California, an agreement was reached, however, in 1849 which fixed the boundary at the Great Lakes and the 49th parallel of latitude from Lake Superior to the Pacific. In the far north-west the United States possess the province of Alaska which they bought from Russia in 1867. The boundary between this state and British North America has been fixed at the 141st meridian.

*Newfoundland.*

Newfoundland, which consists not only of the island of that name but a coastal strip on the east of Labrador, never joined the Dominion and has a separate government administered by a governor assisted by a legislative council. Mention has been made in Book I., of the discovery of this island by Cabot and of the futile attempts at colonisation by Gilbert in Elizabethan times. The fear of competition with the North Sea Fisheries led also to the non-development of its rich fishing banks.

Until the close of the eighteenth century the island remained undeveloped, although fighting between French and British forces on the adjoining mainland led to similar combats in the island. In 1791 a Supreme Court of Judiciary was erected on the island.

Newfoundland consists of a forested mountain and lake land and at present much of its interior is undeveloped, although in recent years quantities of wood pulp have been obtained. Iron is found near St. John, the capital, and sent to Cape Breton Island to be smelted, while salmon are found in the rivers. The population, however, live along the coast and are occupied in the fishing industry on the banks which are in close proximity to the shore. The neighbouring islands of St. Pierre and Miquelon belong to the French and give to these people valuable fishing rights in this area. Disputes both with the French and American fishermen in these waters have been common, but agreements between these nations in the early years of the twentieth century have happily caused their termination.

Arctic currents not only bring down with them minute organisms on which the fish feed, but also ice-floes upon which the seals come southward to breed their young, and hence there are extensive seal fisheries for the sake of the

blubber. Contact between cold air above the Arctic current and the warmer atmosphere over the Gulf Stream, is responsible for the prevalent fog on these banks.

Communication between one fishing settlement and another is chiefly by boat, but a railway from St. John, the capital, to Port aux Basques, it is hoped, will lead to the development of the more fertile areas in the interior.

## CHAPTER III.

### AUSTRALIA.

A STUDY of a map of the southern oceans will show you that the East Indies form a chain of islands which link the continent of Asia to that of Australia. By using these islands as stepping stones, so to speak, it is probable that many of the yellow races reached not only the northern coasts of Australia, but also the Southern Pacific Islands and New Zealand. Only by this means can we account for the Mongolic peoples, who occupy the northern shores of Australia and New Guinea, and the Maoris of New Zealand; the other inhabitants of these lands are a black aboriginal people, distinct from the remaining peoples of the world, being more nearly akin to the black races of Africa than any other race.

We have seen that the explorations of the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries were mainly undertaken with the idea of finding a new sea route to India, and the earliest circum-navigators of the world had all crossed from the western shores of the New World to the Spice Islands, and thus had not touched the island continent of Australia. Thus this far southern land was unknown at the end of the sixteenth



century, although rumours of the presence of such a land were numerous. Portuguese sailors from the East Indies reached New Guinea and, passing through the Torres Strait, coasted the shores of Australia as far south as Cape Howe. These discoveries were, however, kept secret because they broke the agreement made with the Spaniards and the Pope about the line of Tordesillas (*see* Book I.).

In 1606 the Spanish sailor Torres reached New Guinea, and, passing through the strait which now bears his name, passed Cape York, and thus reached the north-east coast of Australia. The barrier reefs which skirt this coast gave him the impression that he was sailing in between a group of islands and he returned with the idea that the so-called southern land was a myth.

At this time the Dutch replaced the Portuguese in these eastern seas and Van Diemen, the Governor of the Dutch Malay possessions, sent Tasman to explore these southern seas. He reached the west coast of Australia, and, travelling southward, got into the track of the "Roaring Forties," which winds carried him eastward to Tasmania. After navigating the coasts of that island the same winds carried him to Cook Strait between North and South Islands, New Zealand. Not realising that this was a strait he sailed along the west coast of North Island and then crossed to the Fiji Islands and so back to Sava. Tasman later made one more voyage to the coasts of Australia. Thinking from the barrier reefs which skirted the coast round Torres Strait that it was only a bay, and that New Guinea formed part of the land mass of Australia, he skirted the northern and western coasts of the continent.

Forty-four years later Dampier set foot on Australian shores from Timor in the Moluccas, and in a second attempt navigated the west coast for more than 1000 miles. We shall learn later that these western shores form a desert

coast where the edges of a barren tableland reach almost to the coast. To both Tasman and Dampier these shores presented a marked contrast to the verdure-clad islands of the East Indies. Hence the accounts which they carried back with them were not such as would induce settlers to emigrate.

It was in 1768 that Cook undertook a journey to the Southern Seas in order that a party of scientific men might view the transit of Venus. On his return journey he sailed round the two islands of New Zealand and then made for Tasmania. A strong southerly gale drove him northward to the south-east corner of Australia along which he coasted until he found a harbour to anchor in Botany Bay. From Botany Bay he coasted northward and threaded the narrow channels, which afford a dangerous and intricate passage between the coral barrier reef and the mainland. He eventually reached Cape York in 1770 and from an island in Torres Strait took possession of this new land for Britain. The marked difference between the fertile, well-watered coastal plains on this coast and those of the west, caused Cook to carry home with him more favourable accounts of this new southern continent.

Before proceeding further it will be well to take a broad survey of this southern continent and try to realise how far natural conditions guided later explorations and limited the areas suitable for settlement. A study of the surface map of this area will show that Australia can be divided into three regions—The Western Tableland, the Central Lowlands, and the Eastern Highlands. The Eastern Highlands, known often as the Dividing Range, form a great mountain barrier reaching from Cape York in the north to the province of Victoria in the south. This ridge, highest in the south-east, has its steep slope to the coastal plain and offered a difficult barrier for the early settlers to cross. Even to-day

there are few railways crossing it, and these are situated where some pass allows railways to be taken from the coast to the centres of mineral wealth in the interior. Between Sydney and Melbourne no railway crosses this mountain barrier.

The great Dividing Range slopes gradually towards the interior where the Central Lowlands reach from the Gulf of Carpentaria in the north to Spencer and St. Vincent Gulfs in the south. This Central Lowland is drained by the Flinders and other rivers flowing to the Gulf of Carpentaria, by Cooper's Creek and other streams flowing to basins of inland drainage in the centre like Lake Eyre, while the southern portion and the south-western slopes of the Dividing Range form the basin of the Murray and its tributaries the Darling and the Lachlan.

West of the Central Lowlands, and occupying two-thirds of the continent, is a vast desert plateau similar in structure to the block plateaux of the Deccan, Arabia, and Africa. Across the centre of the plateau, and running in an east and west direction, is a belt of higher ground forming the Mac-Donnell Range. As this tableland forms a desert, comparable to the Sahara, few rivers drain it. Most of them rise on the wetter edges of the plateau and flow across a narrow coastal plain to the sea. Notice on the map such rivers as the Swan, the Ashburton, and the Fitzroy.

Climate equally with surface has been a determining factor in settlement. The northern half of Australia falls within the tropics and in southern summer the land gets very hot. Into this heated land mass monsoons blow spirally clockwise during the summer season causing a heavy rainfall on the northern coasts. The steep edges of the plateau prevent the rain from reaching the interior. Hence the vegetation on these northern slopes quickly changes from tropical forest to poor grass land and desert. In winter,



owing to the land being colder than the adjoining seas, the monsoons blow outward from the land and are consequently dry.

The south-east Trade Winds, having crossed the Pacific, reach the east coast laden with moisture. This is precipitated on the seaward slopes of the mountains throughout the year, causing the tropical plains in the north to produce rice, bananas, sugar, coffee, and maize, while further south wheat is the chief cereal. These same winds deposit a small amount of moisture on the interior slopes and Central Lowlands during the summer but none falls in the winter. Hence this area grows nothing but short grass and prickly shrubs and is suitable only for sheep-rearing.

The whole of the plateau, and even the coasts on the west are deserts, but on the southern margins, including the south-west of Australia, the region around Adelaide and the province of Victoria, the conditions are favourable to the growth of vegetation. Here the south-east Trades blow during the summer and the warm westerlies in winter, and from either one or both these regions receive rain. Hence wheat and such sub-tropical fruits as the vine and the orange are grown, while the native gum trees provide valuable supplies of hard timber and the cattle pastures cause an export of butter and cheese. Tasmania, to the south of Bass Strait, feels the effect of the warm westerlies all the year and for the most part is forested, except in the fertile valleys which have been cleared for agriculture.

It must be remembered that the first European settlers in Australia found a plant and animal life differing from that of other continents and useless as a food supply. Hence domestic animals and plants had to be introduced, and these have adapted themselves so well to their new home that Australia now exports large quantities of both vegetable and animal foods.

We can now understand why Tasman and Dampier, who sailed along the desert western coasts of the continent returned with such dismal accounts of this southern land, and had it not been for the gales which forced Cook to the eastern coasts the exploration of it might have been deferred for several years and then undertaken by some other maritime nation. Cook and a botanist named Banks, who had accompanied him on this expedition, returned home with glowing, if somewhat exaggerated, accounts of this newly found continent, but the Government were far too busy with the American Wars to turn their attention to Australia.

Many politicians questioned the value to the Mother Country of adding to our colonial possessions, and it is doubtful, even when the wars terminated, whether the Government would have turned their attention to Australia had it not been necessary to find some new land to transport undesirable prisoners, now that Virginia and the Atlantic states could no longer be used for this object.

From the times of Charles and Cromwell this practice of transporting convicted prisoners to supply the demand for labour in the newly-developed British possessions, had grown considerably, and when the termination of the American War closed this means of ridding the Mother Country of undesirables, our unhealthy prisons became more than overcrowded, and some solution became necessary. For a long time the Government could not settle upon a plan, and during the interval between Cook's voyage and the first convict settlement in Australia, the French were cruising in these waters and would undoubtedly have set foot in Australia had not the Government decided on using the eastern seaboard of Australia as a convict settlement.

In May 1787 Captain Philip, who had distinguished himself in the Seven Years War, left England with a thousand convicts for Botany Bay. The colony, over which he was

given control, extended from Cape York southward to include Tasmania, westward to the Central Lowlands, and eastward to include a large number of the islands of the Southern Pacific. Finding Botany Bay undesirable for settlement he transferred his men to the excellent harbour of Port Jackson, and at Sydney Cove made his first settlement. Captain Philip was faced with a difficult problem. Amongst these thousand men were some of the worst characters possible and order could only be kept by armed force. With such a band he landed on a continent which was devoid of all plant and animal food and it was necessary to provide these emigrants with food until such time as they were able to develop the land. To his entreaties for additional supplies the Government, having got rid of its undesirables, turned a deaf ear, and many must have died of hunger had not some food supplies been obtainable from Norfolk Island (*see* Map 2). The soil behind Sydney was found to be very poor, and the convicts either lazy, ignorant, or mutinous, were not the people to make the best of it. A study of the surface map will show that the mountain barrier hemmed them in on the west, and wooded highlands on the north and south of Port Jackson confined this settlement to within fifteen or twenty miles of this port.

In 1792 just before Captain Philip returned home a special regiment known as the New South Wales Corps were sent from home to keep order. For three years their commander acted as governor, and during that time he gave large grants to his men, who not only made the convicts work for them, but sold food and spirits to them at high prices.

Hunter, King, and Bligh, who each in turn became Governor, tried to undo the harm worked by this corps, but it was not until they were disbanded and recalled to England and their place taken by Governor Macquarie and his own regiment, that reform became really possible. By trans-

porting the worst convicts to Tasmania and by encouraging time-expired prisoners by giving them free grants of land and the same privileges as the free settlers, he secured order and caused the lands to be developed.

During these first years of settlement much exploration took place. Flinders and Bass navigated the coasts of Tasmania and discovered it was an island, while the former navigated the more northern coasts and reached the river on which Brisbane now stands (*see* Map 2). A new settlement was made on the Hunter River, and when Napoleon sent an exploring expedition to found colonies in this continent, Governor King to circumvent him established new settlements at Port Philip and at Hobart in Tasmania. Governor Lachlan Macquarie encouraged exploration, and during his tenure of office Blaxland crossed the Blue Mountains to the fertile valleys which drain to the Central Lowlands. Evans discovered the Lachlan and the Macquarie, and at Bathurst the first inland settlement was formed in 1819. Oxley discovered the Liverpool Plains, which have since become famous grazing grounds. During the *regimé* of Brisbane and Darling, his successors, the Brisbane river was traced and Hume made a cross-country journey to Port Philip, but more important still were the explorations of Stuart and Murray which led to the discovery of the Darling, Murrumbidgee, and Murray, the last named being traced to its mouth at Encounter Bay.

Free settlers now began to arrive, and in 1823 a Nominated Council to advise the Governor was formed and law courts set up under a Chief Justice. Bourke and Gipps succeeded Darling in the governorship. During Bourke's term of office in 1840 the Mother Country were persuaded to send no more convicts to this continent except Tasmania. Grazing farmers were encouraged to go west and settle on the grassy interior slopes of the Great Dividing Range. In 1842 New South Wales received a Constitution by which one-third nominated

and two-thirds elected representatives were to establish laws and control the revenue. Appeals to the Mother Country to revive the practice of sending out more convicts to supply the demand for labour caused much agitation, and in 1849 when a party of ex-convicts arrived they were not allowed to land, and two years later the Government decided to send no more convicts to the Eastern colonies.

Having now traced the first settlements in Australia and the foundations of the colony of New South Wales, we will turn to the younger colonies and notice the chain of circumstances which led to their foundation and growth. Western and Southern Australia differ from the others in being independent settlements, while Queensland, Victoria, and Tasmania were really offshoots from the original New South Wales colony.

We have already noticed that in 1804 two settlements were made at Hobart and Launceston to accommodate the worst convicts from New South Wales. Under Macquarie's governorship roads were planned and the lands developed. The colony progressed and later became practically independent, although nominally under the original state. Colonel Arthur was the most noted of several lieutenant-governors who controlled this island. He ruled the convicts with an iron hand, but at the same time encouraged industry among them. To the free settlers his bearing was unsympathetic and many left the island and crossed to the mainland. Trouble with the natives was only settled by inducing them to emigrate to Flinders Island in Bass Strait where most of them died of disease. The closing of the Australian colonies for convict settlements caused an increased number to come to this island. The presence of these ex-convicts caused the demand for a constitutional government to be deferred until 1853, when the importation of convicts was stopped and the colony elected its own representative government,

The stern rule of Colonel Arthur caused many free settlers from Tasmania to cross Bass Strait to the south-east corner of Australia. One group under John Batman founded a settlement at Melbourne on Port Philip, another under Faulkner established a settlement in the Yarra valley at Geelong, while the Hentys a year previously had established a whaling station at Portland near the South Australian border. These settlers were trespassing on Crown lands, but Governor Bourke, realising that the influx of colonists could not be stopped, organised this area into a separate district and allowed it to send six members to the Legislative Assembly. Following upon Mitchell's exploration of the Murray valley, many squatters or grazing farmers settled in the northern part of the colony. The difficulty of being governed from a capital so far distant as Sydney caused a demand for an independent government, and in 1850 this district, henceforth known as Victoria, had a separate government of its own.

The founding of a convict settlement not open to free settlers at Brisbane on Moreton Bay, delayed the development of the lands north of the original settlements, but when the squatters crossed the mountain barrier to the pasture lands on its western flank many moved northward. Hence there were in this area two distinct settlements, one of convicts at Brisbane, the other of squatters inland. The latter at first drew their supplies from Sydney, and a long and tedious journey thus connected them with the coast. The closing of the continent to convicts and the discovery of a new route *via* Toowoomba to Brisbane caused the amalgamation of these two separate settlements. Agitation for a constitutional government of their own led to the foundation of a new province which reached northward to Cape York.

The fear that the French would effect a landing in Australia caused the British Government to make settlements on the north, west, and south coasts. In 1824 the British annexed

Melville Island off the north coast, and two years later established a settlement at Albany in the south-west corner of Australia. In 1829 a party of British emigrants settled on the Swan River, but the unjust distribution of land by which some got large grants of land in the more fertile areas around Perth, while others had to be content with the poorer lands of the interior caused much discontent. The coastlands between Perth and Albany were soon settled, and on application to Britain for convicts led to the development of the coal mines, forests, and pastures. Many who tried to develop the poorer lands of the interior encountered great hardship and many left for New South Wales. In 1868 the transportation of convicts ceased.

South Australia was another attempt at colonisation by British emigrants in 1836 at Adelaide. At first the settlement was a failure, and when Gawler, the Governor, started on his term of office he had to spend money on relief works to provide employment for the immigrant labourers. His successor, Sir George Gray, introduced reforms to make the settlement self-supporting and in four years, owing to the development of its agricultural and pastoral lands, the colony was in a thriving state and independent entirely of convict labour.

If you have studied these settlements with a map you will have realised that, except on the east where settlements had been carried across the difficult barrier of the Dividing Range, the interior of Australia, including much of the Central Lowlands and practically the whole of the desert plateau of Western Australia, remained unknown. Our knowledge of the interior received considerable additions by the explorations of Eyre, who in 1840 explored the salt lakes to the north or Spencer Gulf, and to the three brothers Gregory, who spent fifteen years in the exploration of Western Australia. Stuart, one of the most determined of Australian explorers, was able

in a third attempt to cross the continent from south to north and to plant his flag on the shores of the Indian Ocean. Burke and Wells perished of starvation at Cooper's Creek on their return journey after crossing the continent from Melbourne to the Gulf of Carpentaria. John and Alexander Forrest and Edward Giles spent a great part of their lives in exploring the desert lands of Central and Western Australia.

Before dealing with the discovery of gold and the great influence this had on the later development of Australia, it will be well to revise the earlier stages in the exploration and settlement of this southern continent, for in no other continent are place names so helpful in the study of its historical development. The earlier explorers, such as Tasman, Dampier, Cook, Banks, Bass, Flinders, Murray, Wentworth, are all represented, as also are such governors as Phillip, Lachlan, Macquarie, Darling, Bourke and Gipps. Such names as Melbourne, Derby, Palmerston, Gladstone, are reminders of the cabinet ministers who were in office when these places were developed, while Victoria and Queensland owe their names to the reigning sovereign at the time of their creation, and Coburg and Albany to other members of the royal family at that time. New South Wales should serve to remind us of the mountainous nature of much of the interior which caused Cook to name it after that mountain country of his own land.

Coal in workable quantities had been discovered near Newcastle in 1796, and rich deposits of lead, silver, and copper were found in South Australia between 1841 and 1845, but these did not cause any great increase in the number of settlers. The discovery of gold in New South Wales in 1851 was responsible for a large increase in population, especially when solid lumps weighing nearly 1 cwt. were found. Eager adventurers swarmed to the country in search of the precious metal and other districts were prospected. In the





same year rich deposits were found in Victoria at Ballarat and Bendigo. The population increased rapidly and in less than three years over a quarter of a million miners were at work. In ten years the total yield in Victoria alone was valued at over £100,000,000. In 1867 gold was discovered at Maryborough in Queensland and later at Mount Morgan.

The discovery of gold was at the same time an advantage and a disadvantage to these provinces. Before the discovery the number of settlers were comparatively few, and this event gave the necessary impetus to emigration from the Mother Country to this southern continent. Many who came in search of gold were unsuccessful, and turned their attention to the pastoral and agricultural occupations of the country, and thus increased the prosperity thereof. Many, however, disappointed in their attempts, found it more profitable to waylay, rob, and murder the successful miners. These bush-rangers were joined by many of the ex-convicts, and soon it was unsafe to send gold to the towns unless it was well guarded. These were difficulties the young colonies had to overcome by stern measures.

Valuable supplies of silver were found at Broken Hill on the borders of New South Wales and in South Australia, while the copper in the latter colony provided a valuable export. Soon the rich supplies of nuggets gave out, and now the gold-bearing quartz in these areas is being worked. This does not attract the adventurer, but it yields a steady and more reliable source of income to the colony. It was not until 1885-86 that gold was first discovered in Western Australia at Kimberley. A rush took place, but the surface deposits were soon exhausted, and only gold-bearing quartz, requiring the expenditure of capital on the proper machinery was left. Gold has since been found at Coolgardie, Kalgurlie, and Murchison.

The rapid development of Australia coincided with the

growth of railways in Britain, and soon these were constructed in the southern continent. If you look at a route map of Australia you will see that the railways are taken, where possible, across the mountain barrier to link up the seaports with the mining centres inland. Among these the reader should especially notice the following: from Townsville to Charters Tower and Cloncurry, from Rockhampton to Longreach, joined by a coast route through Maryborough to the line that runs from Brisbane to Charleville. In New South Wales lines radiate from Sydney northward to Newcastle, Ipswich, and Brisbane, north-westward to Bathurst and Bourke, and south-westward to Goulburn, Bendigo, and Melbourne. Ballarat and Geelong are also linked to Melbourne, the former by a line which runs to Adelaide. From Adelaide lines run inland to the copper mines of Wallaroo. In Western Australia Perth, Fremantle, Bunbury, and Albany, are linked by railways, but these are only constructed to the desert interior where the gold supplies render it necessary. Such are the railways from Perth to Coolgardie and Kalbarlie, and from Geraldton to Cue and Nannine on the Murchison fields.

A route map of Australia reminds us of the desert nature of much of the interior, and although in 1912 a start was made with a railway from Adelaide to Kalbarlie, which will give trans-continental communication between the eastern states and Western Australia, commerce between Western Australia and the remaining provinces must be by inter-colonial steamship routes. South Australia, which annexed the Northern Territory in 1863, successfully completed the difficult task of constructing an overhead telegraph line from Adelaide to Port Darwin, from whence a submarine cable connects it with Java and so to Europe. This line follows the course of the railway as far as Oodnadatta, and then is continued northward through waterless deserts to the north coast.

In the earlier pages of this chapter we have already traced the steps by which Tasmania, Queensland, and Victoria became separated from the parent colony of New South Wales. Western and Southern Australia had always been separated from the control of that province. The abolition of the importation of convicts in New South Wales (1845), Queensland (1849), and Tasmania (1853), was a necessary step before measures of self-government similar to that granted in Canada could be adopted. Following upon this abolition, elected councils to assist the governors were instituted. The discovery of gold, and the consequent need for local governments, capable of understanding and settling at once the difficulties arising therefrom, led to the creation in 1854 of separate parliaments in New South Wales, Victoria, South Australia, and Tasmania. Queensland was not separated from New South Wales and created a self-governing province until five years later, while the full constitution of Western Australia was deferred until 1899.

At a much later period it was felt that if all these self-governing provinces, in addition to governing themselves, sent representatives to a Federal Parliament it would secure uniformity between the states and would enable them to unite together for the common welfare of all. Hence the Commonwealth of Australia was proclaimed on the 1st January 1901 and a Federal Parliament set up. This Parliament now meets at Melbourne, but a new capital is to be built at Canberra in New South Wales.

This Commonwealth Parliament deals with all external questions such as tariffs, commerce, immigration, and foreign relations. It has taken over all customs duties, the chief source of income in the provinces, and pays back to each State Parliament a fixed sum per head of the population. The Commonwealth Parliament has not only secured uniformity between the states, but has been able to

institute schemes for the good of the continent as a whole. Among such schemes are the building of the trans-continental railway, the building and maintaining of a navy to defend its shores, and the up-keep of a military force. The Northern Territory, a thinly-peopled area occupied chiefly by natives, is now controlled by the Federal Parliament, as also is the British portion of New Guinea. Coloured immigrants from Asia are now not wanted to work on the sugar plantations of Queensland, enough Europeans being found to do all the work required in Australia. Federation and the granting of self-government have thus proved an advantage to the continent as a whole, but they have done much more. Realising the advantages it reaps from being part of a wisely-governed empire it has sacrificed its men, its wealth, and its products to support the Mother Country in her hour of need, and is still willing to do more to keep intact the Empire of which it forms a part. Following upon the termination of the War of 1914-19, it was decided in Paris on 7th. May 1919 that the German possessions in the Southern Pacific Ocean, excluding Samoa and Nauru, should be controlled by the Australian Government.

Before closing this chapter it will be well to take a broad survey of the occupations and industries of its people. One of the chief sources of Australia's prosperity is her sheep pastures. The interior slope of the Eastern Highlands and the Central Lowlands provide pasture for millions of sheep. Sheep also are now reared in the northern part of Western Australia, in lands thought to be barren desert. Artesian wells are used in times of drought to provide the necessary water for the flocks. Australian wool is sent in large quantities to Britain to be manufactured, and the invention of refrigerating apparatus has made it possible to ship vast quantities of frozen mutton to supply the needs of the dense populations of Great Britain. Cattle and horses are also

reared, and of late years the export of dairy produce, especially butter, has considerably increased.

Among minerals gold is still the chief export. Since 1851 five hundred million pounds worth of gold has been obtained from the mines. Australia now ranks third among the gold-producing countries of the world, the greater part being obtained from Western Australia. The noted silver mines at Broken Hill, the rich copper deposits in South Australia and at Mount Morgan in Queensland, the lead, zinc, and iron of New South Wales, and the tin of Tasmania are other sources of mineral wealth. Coal found in New South Wales, Queensland, Victoria, Tasmania, and Western Australia renders the continent independent of outside supplies of this fuel.

In the lands of the south having a Mediterranean type of climate, wheat in large quantities, the vine used largely in the making of Burgundy which is exported, and olives, are some of the crops cultivated. Western Australia has also forests of hard wood, trees whose timber is used for street-paving. In the more tropical coastal plains of Queensland over two million acres are devoted to sugar plantations, and such crops as maize, coffee, rice, ginger, cotton and bananas are also grown.

The greater part of the population is engaged in mining, and in agricultural and pastoral occupations, but the supplies of raw material, together with the coal and iron have caused the people to manufacture goods for home use rather than import them. Among these may be mentioned coarse tweed, cloths, leather goods, and boots, furniture and agricultural machinery. The vine grown in the southern states has caused a rapidly increasing manufacture of wine for export, and butter is now also made in large quantities for export to the Mother Country.

## CHAPTER IV

## NEW ZEALAND.

THE Roaring Forties which carried Abel Tasman from the south-western shore of Australia to the island of Tasmania assisted him in his eastward voyage to New Zealand, for 1200 miles due eastward from Bass Strait lie the chief islands which form that Dominion. North Island, which is nearly equal in area to England, is separated from South Island by Cook Strait. This island, which is larger than North Island and equal in area to England and Wales, is separated from Stewart Island by Foveaux Strait. Included also in the Dominion of New Zealand are numerous groups of small islands in the Southern Pacific. On a map of the southern seas find the Auckland and Campbell Islands to the south, the Chatham, Bounty, and Antipodes groups to the east, the Kermadec Islands, 600 miles to the north, and the Cook, Savage, Penrhyn, and Manahiki islands 2000 miles to the north-east. A study of this same map will show that New Zealand forms part of a festoon of islands linking it with the islands of South-East Asia, and roughly parallel with the mountain barrier running from New Guinea to Victoria. \*

Both North and South Island are long and narrow, and being indented by deep fiords, give all parts easy access to the sea. South Island has a uniform mountain structure, the Southern Alps having a steep slope to an indented west coast similar to that of Norway. This range rises in Mt. Cook to over 12,000 feet, and sends low spurs to the south-east coast. Between these spurs are well-watered plains, such as those of Canterbury, drained by such rivers as the Rokaia and Waitaki. As this island lies south of the 40th parallel of latitude it is in the belt of the "Roaring Forties," which



MAP 4.—NEW ZEALAND.



cause the western slopes to be drenched with heavy rains, while the more gradual eastern slopes and the plains are much drier and warmer. The heavy precipitation of moisture in the form of snow in winter on the summits of the Southern Alps is responsible for the large numbers of glaciers, and the melting of these gives rise to a large number of rivers flowing to the east coast. As the west gets a heavy rainfall the slopes are thickly forested, but the drier eastern slopes and plains form rich sheep pastures or are cultivated for crops of wheat and hemp.

North Island is not so uniform in structure as South Island. Running north-eastward from Wellington are well-defined ridges which border the plains around Hawke and Poverty Bays. The middle of the island is a volcanic region and contains such active volcanoes as Ruapehu and Tangaroa, while extinct Mt. Egmont makes a projection on the west coast. North of Lake Taupo is the volcanic region of Rotorua with its lakes, geysers, and hot springs. Sinter terraces of great beauty attracted many visitors to this district until they were destroyed by violent earthquakes. Still further north the island is cut nearly in two by Hauraki Gulf and Manukau Harbour, Auckland lying on the narrow neck of land separating them. North of this is a long peninsula indented by many bays. The greater part of this island lies in the same parallels of latitude as Victoria and South-Western Australia, and therefore, like them, has a Mediterranean type of climate and a sub-tropical vegetation. Forests of hard woods, notably the kauri pine, are plentiful and gum from decayed forests of these trees is now dug from the ground. Many sub-tropical products, in addition to wheat are grown, especially in the well-watered plains bordering Cook Strait.

In addition to its vegetable resources New Zealand is rich in minerals. Coal is obtained from most parts, but Westport,

Dunedin, and Newcastle are the chief mining centres. Valuable supplies of gold are also obtained from the west coast of South Island between Westport and Hokitika and also in the Thames basin of North Island. Silver, lead, and iron also occur in different parts.

During the Middle Ages a race of Polynesian people known as Maoris had settled in North Island and had killed off most of the original inhabitants. The Maoris were a physically well-developed people, skilful in the making and use of stone weapons. They hollowed out the trunks of trees and made them into big sea-going canoes and wove material for their dress from the native hemp. Nothing was done, however, to cultivate the land, which belonged to the tribe as a whole. These people were ferocious and warlike and on the tops of the hills erected stockades, not only for purposes of defence, but also as bases for attacks on the neighbouring tribes. It was the failure both of the English official and the early English settler to understand these peoples that led to trouble and warfare.

In the preceding chapter we have noticed that Abel Tasman came to New Zealand in 1642, and failing to realize that Cook Strait was anything more than an inlet sailed along the west coast of North Island. Captain Cook was the first European to sail round New Zealand and establish the existence of two large islands. He found the Maoris unfriendly when he landed in 1770. Following Captain Cook's discovery little was attempted in the way of real colonisation. The Home Government, as we have realised in earlier chapters, had got no Imperial Spirit and had no desire to add to their colonial possessions. Hence the missionaries and others who settled in the land and tried to improve the conditions of the Maoris received no help or encouragement. The first settlers were adventurous whalers with whom were many ex-convicts from Australia. These established settlements both in South

Island and in the extreme north, especially on the Bay of Islands. Traders from New South Wales brought among other things muskets and gunpowder which they bartered with the natives. The tact and patience of the missionaries, under Samuel Marsden, did much to improve the conditions of the Maoris who were induced to give up cannibalism and to cultivate the ground. The traders' muskets, however, caused much warfare, and half the Maori population was destroyed by the coast tribes, who, with their superior weapons, could easily overcome the natives of the interior, armed only with stone weapons of defence. Appeals to the Governor of New South Wales to check the action of these traders led to the appointment of both English and Maori magistrates.

In 1831 the French landed on the north-west coast and the missionaries, afraid of their designs upon these islands, persuaded the Maoris to unite under British protection. The Mother Country refused to annex these islands. At this time a plan to colonise New Zealand on similar lines to those adopted in South Australia was started. In 1838 Wakefield bargained with the local chiefs for several millions of acres bordering Cook Strait. This was contrary to Maori law and when the Company resold this land to intending settlers the latter found on their arrival at Wellington that the natives were still in possession. Troubles with this New Zealand Company under Wakefield and also with the French who had established a whaling station at Akaroa, caused the British Government at last to annex these islands and place them under a Lieutenant-Governor who was under the Governor of New South Wales.

In 1840 Captain Hobson, the first Governor, landed, and before the expiration of a month made the Treaty of Waitangi with the Maori chiefs. This treaty, the Magna Charta of the Maoris, guaranteed to the tribes the full possession of their

lands which they could only sell if they so desired to British officials. In exchange the natives acknowledged British sovereignty. Eventually the treaty was signed by over 500 chiefs, and when two months later French warships arrived to annex the islands for that nation, they were too late. In the following year New Zealand was made a separate colony with Auckland as its capital.

From 1841 to 1852 the Crown Colony of New Zealand had a very chequered career. The Governor assisted by a council of six nominees had the difficult double task of encouraging new settlers without offending the Maoris or acting contrary to the terms of the Treaty of Waitangi, and this task was rendered still more difficult by the action of the New Zealand Company, and by the interference of the British Government who failed to understand the situation. The Company without the Governor's consent purchased land in defiance of the terms of the Treaty and new settlements were made at New Plymouth (Devon men) in 1841 and at Nelson 1842.

The latter settlement led to the first Maori war. The Company claimed the land to the south-east of this settlement and sent a party to survey it, despite the opposition of the Maori chief. While waiting the decision of the Government the Maoris burnt the surveyor's hut and the magistrate issued a warrant for the arrest of the chief, Te Rauparaha, on a charge of arson. When Wakefield and fifty armed men went to arrest him an accidental shot killed the chief's daughter. This was the signal for the fighting to commence in which the British was forced to retreat, losing more than half their number, including Wakefield. A later enquiry by Governor Fitzroy established that the Company were in the wrong and the Maoris were left alone.

In 1845 risings took place in the settlement on the Bay of Islands, owing to the natives' fear that the Treaty would

be repudiated and their lands confiscated. Want of revenue, together with an inadequate military force, unused to the Maori methods of warfare, made the conditions of the colony precarious. At this juncture George Grey became Governor and soon won the confidence of most of the Maori chiefs. He commenced active operations against the rebels, and by capturing Te Ruaparaha was able to quell a general native revolt.

The New Zealand Company now turned their attention to South Island where there were few natives with whom to contend. A Scottish Free Church settlement bought lands in the south-east and two ship loads of emigrants founded the city of Dunedin. North of this the Canterbury Association bought up lands and sent out settlers in 1850, hence the foundation of Christchurch and Lyttelton in the province of Canterbury. The discovery of excellent sheep pasture in both these settlements caused an influx of Australian sheep farmers, but the discovery of gold first at Otago in 1861 and near Hokitika in 1864, caused a rush of miners and trebled the population.

The increase in population caused a demand for representative government and in 1852 the islands were divided into six provinces, each with a superintendant and an elected council, and each sending representatives to a central Parliament which consisted of a Legislative Council nominated by the Governor for life, and an elected House of Representatives. The good work, which these elected councils might have done, was frustrated to a great extent by the jealousy between the local councils.

The departure of Governor George Grey caused a renewal of the trouble with the Maoris and bitter warfare resulted, which lasted for more than eleven years. Under the new governor, Colonel Gore-Browne, the control of native affairs devolved upon Parliamentary ministers who were not

sympathetic to the Maoris or to the laws which forbade the importation of firearms and spirits for disposal among the natives. Trouble arose when Te Whero Whero, a Maori king controlling a great part of the centre of North Island, refused to sell land or to allow his chiefs to do so. When, therefore, the Governor wanted to buy land near New Plymouth he met with considerable opposition, and his occupation of the disputed land and the proclamation of martial law, caused the outbreak of hostilities.

British and Colonial forces under General Pratt, although more numerous than the Maoris, were unable to force the latter to a decisive victory, and the Home Government in order to quieten the Maoris, sent Sir George Grey back to New Zealand. He inquired into the dispute and decided in favour of the Maoris, but the latter were now suspicious, and when Grey caused a military road to be made from Auckland into the Waikato district, the war was renewed. General Cameron drove the Waikato Maoris from Auckland to Orakau, where despite 1300 British soldiers and artillery, the chief, Rewa, with 400 followers, refused to yield and after holding his stockade for two days and nights, at last broke through the lines and with a few of his followers escaped to the forest.

The Maoris of the eastern district of Tauranga also rose in rebellion. These were mostly cannibals and committed most brutal murders. In 1864 they repulsed a much larger British force and compelled them to sue for peace. Although Grey brought the war to an end in 1865 these Maoris were not finally subdued until five years later, when their cruel massacres caused many of the Maoris to join hands with the British in exterminating them.

Since 1870 the Maoris have given no serious trouble. At first King Tawhaio would not allow white men to settle in his dominions, but in 1883 he gave way on condition

that no spirits were sold to his people. A wise policy with the Maoris has since been instituted. Much of their land has now been taken and opened up to settlers, but other parts are strictly reserved for their use. Maori members are now elected to Parliament and Maori chiefs have been allowed to become Ministers of the crown.

With the close of the Maori wars the Dominion at once began to develop its resources. From 1870 onwards Sir Julius Vogel raised a large loan to construct railways and harbours and to assist immigrants in settlement. The opposition of the local councils to his scheme caused Parliament to abolish these provincial assemblies and to transfer their control to the central government, while local government was established on a similar basis to that in the Home Government. The effect of Vogel's reforms was not only to increase the number and quantity of the exports, thus doubling the country's revenue, but also to cause new settlers to flock to the colony. This period of prosperity was succeeded by years of failure during which many ministers fell, but by 1891 the Colony once more recovered. Constitutional reforms, such as the division of the land into small farms cultivated by their owners, the founding of a state bank, the establishment of compulsory arbitration in labour disputes, old age pensions, local option in the sale of intoxicating liquors, are evidence that this new Dominion is well in advance in constitutional progress.

This natural growth in wealth and constitutional activity caused it to be proclaimed a Dominion in 1907. To raise revenue and to protect her industries, New Zealand has adopted a tariff in imported goods, with a modification in favour of British imports which pay a smaller tax than foreign countries. To assist in the defence of the Empire, New Zealand has not only her own torpedo flotilla but also contributes to the upkeep of the British Navy.

The whole British Empire can never forget the good work done by her volunteer contingents, both in the South African War and the great European War of 1914-19. Not only do they provide evidence of the loyalty and self sacrifice of her sons to the Mother Country in times of need, but are a lesson to the whole world in the wisdom of establishing self-governing Dominions unfettered by irksome restrictions. Following upon the Treaty of Paris the German Samoan Islands were placed under the control of the New Zealand Government.

## CHAPTER V.

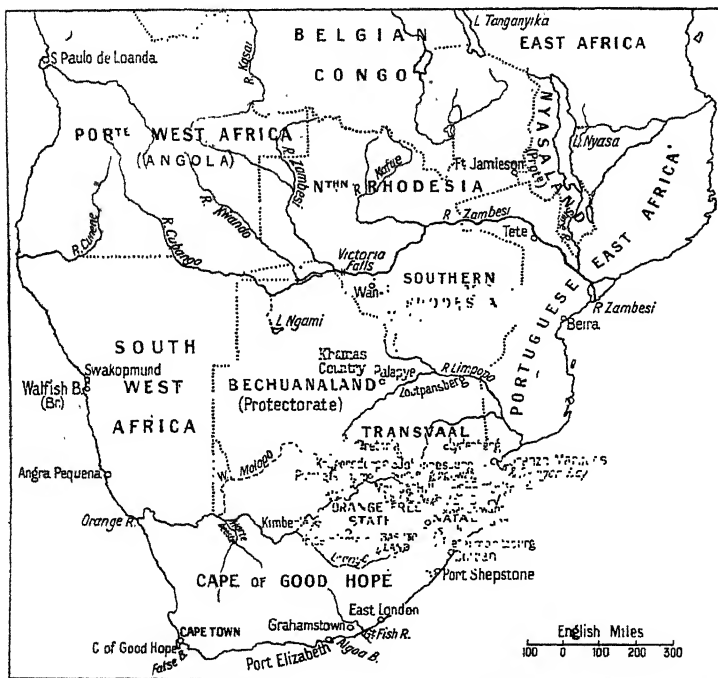
### SOUTH AFRICA.

A STUDY of the continental map of Africa will show that the greater part of it lies within the tropics. Within the tropics Europeans find it very difficult to establish colonies, except on the higher, healthier plateaux. In the unhealthy coastal plains colonial settlements are in reality only trading stations to which the native tribes of the interior bring their products to exchange for the manufactured products of Europe. South of the Congo, however, Africa has a much cooler climate and it is in this region where the European settler can find healthy surroundings that British influence is predominant.

We will, before studying the history of this region, take a broad survey of its surface features. The plateau surface of Africa forms a steep brink on the south and east, and the ascent to this from the narrow coastal plains of Portuguese East Africa, Natal, and the Cape of Good Hope Province, is by terraces. The seaward slopes of this plateau and the



coastal plains receive rain throughout the year and in the northern part malarial conditions prevail owing to the heat and moisture. The terraces are much drier and differ from



MAP 5.—SOUTH AFRICA.

the forested slopes in forming poor pasture lands on which sheep and ostriches are kept.

The plateau slopes gradually westward and can be divided into great continental river basins. In the north, separated

by a very indefinite waterparting from the Congo, is the basin of the Zambesi. This stream rises in the west and in its upper course has a south-easterly direction towards the inland drainage system of Lake Ngami with which it has some connection. From thence it flows almost due eastward, and this direction being against the general slope of the plateau, it descends by a series of waterfalls to the Portuguese coastal plain. The Victoria Falls, the largest of these, are situated where the Zambesi, a mile in width, descends 400 feet into a narrow ravine known as the "Boiling Pot" from which it escapes by a zig-zag course which it has carved through the hard rock. Many long tributaries from the north bring a great volume of water to the main stream. Chief among these is the Shire River which drains Lake Nyasa. The Zambesi basin, the greater part of which forms Rhodesia, is a summer rain area. It is capable of white habitation owing to the elevation of its plateau surface above the limit of malarial fevers. Large areas are now devoted to cattle pastures, but an increasing amount is being brought under cultivation and crops of maize, wheat, tobacco, cotton, coffee, and cultivated rubber are being produced.

The granite Matoppo Hills form the waterparting between the Zambesi and the Limpopo, a river which rises in the Witwatersrand, and after a semicircular course breaks through a broken edge of the plateau in the Bush Veldt to the Portuguese coastal plain on the east coast. The Witwatersrand forms a hard resistant mass of quartz rock separating the Limpopo and Orange basins. On the south side of it rises the Vaal, a tributary of the Orange River. The Orange basin drains an area equal to three times that of the British Isles, but because it flows through a dry country, especially in the west, it loses such a lot of water by evaporating, that it conveys but little volume to the sea. Owing to this, and to the numerous falls which obstruct its

mouth, there is no large port situated on its estuary and the river itself is of no commercial importance. The Orange and its tributaries cut deep gorges known as Kloofs into the plateau, and during the winter or dry season form dried water courses while the summer floods make them unnavigable. Hence the rivers of South Africa have been an obstacle to movement and to-day the boundaries of the different states are formed by such streams. The long rivers which drain the plateau should be contrasted with the short rapid streams which descend from the seaward edges of the plateau on the south and east which are unnavigable for most of their course.

The eastern part of the plateau south of the Matoppo Hills, forming the Transvaal and the Orange Free State, receives some rain in summer. A poor climate and an unproductive soil cause an area deficient in trees, and consisting mainly of poor agricultural and pastoral land, except in the Middle and Bush Veldts where the Limpopo descends through the broken edges of the plateau to the eastern coastal plain. Further to the west, the rainfall gets less and the Kalahari Desert of British Bechuanaland and South-West Africa north of the Cape District are only able to support sheep on their poor pastures because of underground supplies of water. The coastal plain of Natal and the eastern portion of the Cape of Good Hope Province get rain throughout the year and around Cape Town a Mediterranean type of climate with winter rains allows of the growth of the vine, wheat, and sub-tropical fruits, while Australian hard-wood trees have been transplanted in this district with much success.

Having now made a broad survey of the geographical conditions of this region we will trace its history and the development of its resources and try to realise how strong a factor geographical conditions were in determining that history. Traces of the early Portuguese settlements made along this

coast, after the famous journeys of Bartholomew Diaz and Vasco de Gama, already described in Book I., can be found in such names as the Cape of Good Hope, Natal, first discovered on Christmas Day 1497, and Algoa and Delagoa Bays, which were calling ports *en route* to the important settlement of Goa in Southern India. Mention has also been made of the British pioneers who landed at the Capé but whose settlement came to nothing owing to the lack of appreciation of its importance by the Home Country.

With the fall of the Portuguese Empire in India South Africa was left for a considerable time to its native Hottentots and Bushmen, but in 1652 the Dutch, realising its importance as a calling station *en route* to India, made a permanent settlement at Cape Town and landed a garrison and officials at False Bay. At first it was mainly a port of call. Immigration from Holland was very small as that country was more interested in commerce than in colonisation, while the hostility of the natives confined these settlers to the coast. The Revocation of the Edict of Nantes in 1685 caused many French Huguenot refugees to land on these shores, thus following the example of the Pilgrim Fathers, who, for similar reasons, founded the New England States of America. Many of these Huguenots intermarried with the Dutch and thus formed a mixed race now known as Boers or Afrikaners. The harsh and tyrannical treatment meted out to these settlers by the Cape officials caused a cleavage between the Cape Dutch and the Boers. The latter formed "a race of men who cared nothing for trade and very little for social life, who owned no allegiance (except by compulsion) to any law but their own interpretation of the Bible, and felt no patriotism for any country on earth but their own South Africa." Whenever Dutch law and order came too near them the Boers moved further into the interior and finding the Karroos or terraces too dry for agriculture, became mainly

a pastoral people, leading a semi-nomadic life on the plateau or veldt.

As the Boers increased and their semi-nomadic settlements occupied a larger area, so did the boundaries of their original colony have to be enlarged, and this led to fighting with the Kaffirs who resented intrusion into their domains. We will now turn aside to consider these native races of South Africa because they have an important bearing on the later history of this area. When the Portuguese left South Africa the inhabitants mainly consisted of Hottentot cattle breeders and a smaller and more savage race of hunters known as Bushmen, but between the Portuguese and Dutch periods of occupation many of the strong, healthy Bantu races from the plateau came southwards from the Zambesi region and drove the Hottentots and the Bushmen to the drier lands of the west. Among these Bantu tribes or Kaffirs were the Zulus, Swazis, and Pondoes, who descended to the eastern coastal plain of Natal, the Basutos, who now occupy the land between the Orange and its tributary the Caledon, and the Bechuanas, who pasture their cattle on the lands west of the Vaal River. The Hottentots, who lived near Cape Town were reduced to serfdom by the Dutch, who employed them and also imported slaves from the Gold Coast of Africa to work in the more fertile lands adjoining that settlement.

During the years which followed the French Revolution, France over-ran Holland, and the British, afraid lest the French should use Cape Town in their designs on British possessions in India, secured it in 1795 after a very slight resistance by the Dutch settlers. By the Treaty of Amiens it once more reverted to Holland, but with the renewal of the war Britain once more occupied it and its possession was confirmed by treaty in 1814.

When taken over by the British the original Cape Province consisted of 70,000 peoples of whom more than two-thirds

were either natives or imported slaves. The remainder consisted of the Dutch settlers around Cape Town and the Boers, a pastoral and farming people who had trekked across the Karroos and even on to the plateau or Veldt where they lived in constant enmity with the Kaffir peoples. At first Cape Town was purely a military station and the Dutch settlers were allowed to retain their own courts of law in which Dutch was the official language. Following the Napoleonic Wars the British Government encouraged large numbers of emigrants to settle in South Africa as they did in Australia and Canada. A British settlement was effected at Grahamstown, Algoa Bay, and for some time there were two distinct colonies, one British at Algoa Bay, the other Dutch around Cape Town, somewhat similar to the settlements at Ontario and Quebec in Canada.

In 1833 the settlement at Cape Town was made into a Crown Colony with a legislature consisting of colonists nominated by the governor. Dutch courts of law were then abolished and the Dutch language superseded by English. At this time complaints reached London that the Dutch were ill-treating both the Hottentots and the imported slaves, while missionaries grumbled against the Boer opposition to the conversion of the natives to Christianity. Friction was thus aroused between the Dutch and the British, which was considerably increased by the Home Government's action in not taking the advice of those administrators who had experienced the difficulties. This friction was not lessened when the abolition of slavery in 1834 brought to the Dutch farmer, what he considered, inadequate compensation for his released slaves.

To understand further the course of the Great Trek it will be necessary to turn to the Kaffir population. Mention has already been made of the Zulus who settled in the eastern coastal plain of Natal and for a time lived peaceably with the other Bantu tribes. Tchaka, one of the Zulu chiefs, however,

by copying European drill and organisation, turned the warriors of his tribe into an army of brave and well armed regiments with which he made war on all the surrounding tribes. Many perished utterly, others fled in desperation, some as far north as the Zambesi. Bechuanaland and Pondoland were laid waste and only the Swazis could bid them defiance. One branch of the Zulu tribe who seceded from their chief crossed the Drakensbergs, laid waste the country later to be known as the Transvaal, and settled on the Limpopo where they formed the Matabele nation. Many of the Bantu tribes under pressure from the Zulus invaded Cape Colony. A strong native force crossed the Great Fish River and were only forced back by strong action on the part of D'Urban, the governor, and Colonel Harry Smith who led the attack against them. The boundary was then fixed 70 miles beyond that river, and native buffer states created to protect our colony further. Among these was Griqualand on the banks of the Orange, occupied by Hottentot half-breeds. The refusal of the British Government to ratify this new boundary or to allow the Kaffirs to live in British territory safeguarded by British laws, was the work of people who could and would not understand the difficulties of its administration. The whole colony was aghast at the decision of the Home Government, and the ruined Dutch Boers were so aroused that they decided to trek into the unoccupied lands north and east of the British colony where they could enjoy independence.

In 1836 the Great Trek commenced, and during this and succeeding years large bodies of Dutch Boers left the British colony. Some of them moved northwards across the Orange River and founded the Orange Free State named after the famous William of Orange. Others moved still farther north and crossed the Vaal. Here they defeated the Matabele Kaffirs and drove them to the north and west. A third party

crossed into the coastal plain of Natal and occupied the lands laid waste by the Zulus. They defeated the latter and established a republic called Natalia with its capital at Pietermaritzberg named after the Boer leader Pieter Rietief, who was treacherously murdered by the Zulus. Their determination to settle down and cultivate this eastern plain brought them into conflict with the British Government, because previously British settlers had established themselves at Durban. When the Home Government was acquainted with this new Dutch settlement a strong force was sent to Durban, and in 1843 Natal was proclaimed a British colony.

Once more the Boers trekked, some of them to join their countrymen in the Orange Free State, but most of them into the Transvaal. Here they settled down to comparative peace and so long as their provinces produced nothing better than poor crops from the agricultural lands, and poor pasture for their flocks and herds, they were but little interfered with. It should be noticed, however, that Britain did not recognise the independence of the Transvaal Republic until 1852 at the Sand River Convention.

Those Boers who had settled beyond the Orange River lived for some time in practical independence, but they did not eject the Kaffirs who were constantly giving trouble, both to the British settlements and to the Boer state. Ultimately the British Government determined to interfere, and in 1846 a garrison was placed at Bloemfontein, while two years later the province was annexed under the title of the Orange River Colony. The Dutch settlers rose in arms and were defeated by the Governor, Sir Harry Smith, but troubles with the Basutos led the British Government to renounce its sovereignty over this area as not being worth the expense of its defence. Thus was formed a second Boer republic known as the Orange Free State.



The warlike Matabele who had been driven from the Transvaal by the Boers, constantly raided the peaceable Mashonas who practised agriculture and worked the mineral resources of the country. These raids were not confined to the Mashonas, but attacks were also made on the Boers of the Transvaal. British intervention led to the defeat of the Matabele under Lobengula. Since then the whole administration of law and order in the area north of the Transvaal has been placed under the control of the British Chartered Company of South Africa. In return for the privileges of developing its agricultural and mineral resources, this company has to maintain a body of mounted police to keep law and order among the native population. At first the company controlled only those areas between the Transvaal and the Zambesi, but early in the present century the lands drained by the northern tributaries of that river (except British Nyasaland *see* Chapter VI.) were placed under their control and this area is now known as Northern Rhodesia.

During this period trouble was brewing in the Transvaal. In 1864 the rival governments at Lydenberg and Potchefstroom were united under Pretorius with Paul Kruger as commandant-general. The government orders were not obeyed, slave holding was common although not allowed by the nominal government, and internally the state was soon in a condition of both anarchy and bankruptcy. Although unsound internally it made a great pretence of power outside by claiming protectorates over neighbouring native states, and by picking quarrels with such native chiefs as Khama, Lobengula, and Cetewayo.

In 1876 it picked a quarrel with Sekunka and the severe defeat which he administered to the Boers, and the horrible atrocities inflicted dealt such a blow to the white man's power in South Africa that Britain was forced to intervene. When Sir Theophilus Shepstone arrived in the Transvaal to make

an enquiry, talk of wiping out the white man was common among the native races. Realising the weakness of the Boer government he dissolved the Republic and annexed the Transvaal, remaining to administer the government.

At this time a wise administrator was appointed to South Africa. Sir Bartle Frere arrived with a large Indian experience. His ideal was an assemblage of self-governing states united under one control for purposes of defence, but he realised that this was impossible until peace and order were established. He first attacked Cetewayo, the Zulu chief, who had not kept his promises to the British, and although Lord Chelmsford's forces were defeated at Isandhlwana (marked by the heroic defence of Rorke's Drift hospital) they later gained a decisive victory at Ulundi, and broke the power of that warrior nation which for three-quarters of a century had been a terror to South Africa. An attempt to make Cetewayo a vassal king resulted in failure, and in 1887 the state was annexed to Britain, and ten years later was added to Natal.

This defeat of the Zulus, and also the defeat of Sekunki by Wolseley, freed the Boers from the fear of a native invasion, and like the American colonists of an earlier date, they were anxious to throw over the British power. At this time the wise and tolerant rule of Shepstone was replaced by that of a martinet who roused the worst feelings of the Boers. Transvaal malcontents relied on the British Government backing down as they had previously done and not supporting their administrators: When therefore the British Government made them a Crown Colony instead of granting the Boers some measure of self-government, as had been promised, insurrection broke out. On Dingaan's Day 1880 the South African republic was proclaimed and all the British garrisons in the Transvaal were besieged. The Boers crossed the Natal frontier in three places and the small force, raised by Colley, the

Governor-General of Natal, was insufficient to defeat the Boers who blocked the passage across the Drakensbergs at Laing's Neck. After the defeat of the small British force at Majuba Hill, the weak Home Government recalled the large force which was on its way to subdue the insurgents, and in 1881 at the Convention of Pretoria granted independence to the Transvaal. This independence was subject to certain conditions which were considerably modified by a convention in London in 1884. This latter convention by making the terms of suzerainty very indefinite, and by reducing the position of the British resident to that of a mere consul, laid the foundations of the friction which resulted in the South African War. The action of the British Government weakened British prestige in South Africa for the Boer could not respect a nation who by its weak and vacillating policy undid all the good wrought by its administrators. As a result they were soon extending their territory into the adjoining states, and although British forces limited their sphere of action a new republic was formed on the eastern border in 1886 and included as part of the Transvaal two years later.

Returning now to Cape Colony we must note that in 1853 representative government was introduced by the election of members to both chambers of its legislature, although it was not until 1872 that it was accorded responsible government similar to that enjoyed by Canada and Australia. An attempt to use Cape Colony as a penal settlement met with determined opposition from the colonists and was eventually dropped. Trouble with the Basutos in 1848-50 led to war, while a further trouble with these people in 1879 caused Basutoland to be removed from the control of Cape Town and placed directly under the British Government. When diamonds were discovered at Kimberley in 1869 the British claimed the western portion of the Orange Free State. This led to friction but Britain retained the disputed tract and

the Free State Government received a sum of money in compensation.

Occupying the eastern coastal plain and the seaward edges of the plateau are the province of Natal and the native states of Zululand, Swaziland, and Tongaland. Before 1856 Natal formed part of Cape Colony but in that year it became a separate state. Since the Boers trekked from this state there had been a large influx of native Kaffirs and the clashing of their interests with those of the colonial settlers was greatly feared. Many of these Kaffirs were encouraged to settle down as owners and cultivators of the soil and to develop its resources. From 1860 onward Natal made steady progress until troubles arose with the Zulus, who lived on the northern border. The subjugation of the Zulus has been already referred to in this chapter. The eastern border of Cape Colony was advanced by wars with the Kaffirs, and the inclusion of Pondoland in that state made its border touch Natal.

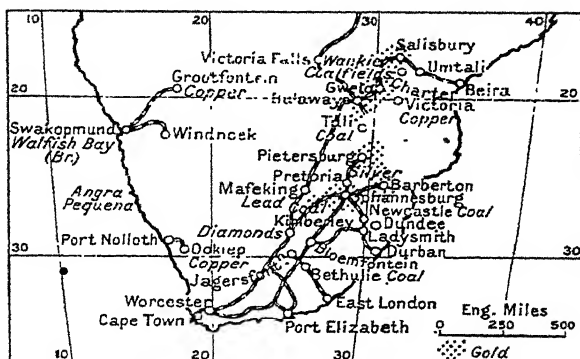
The discovery of diamonds at Kimberley and in the Orange Free State, and the rich resources of gold in the Witwatersrand of the Transvaal and also in Southern Rhodesia caused the introduction of a large European mining population chiefly composed of British, and continuous conflicts between these and the agricultural and pastoral Boers eventually led to the South African War in 1899. Heavy taxation on the mineral producing areas in the Transvaal transferred it from a poor agricultural state into a republic, which was financially independent of Britain, and the Boer inhabitants were not averse to showing their independence and hatred of British government. On the other hand it should be noticed that the demand of the mining population for representation in the legislature would have caused the Boers to be considerably outvoted in their assembly.

The relations between Boers and Uitlanders, as the

immigrant mining people were called, became more strained as time went on and led to a rising in Johannesburg in 1895 and a raid on the Boer peoples by Dr Jameson. This was brought to an end on 1st January 1896 by the surrender of the invaders at Krugersdorp. For three years the country outwardly was calm and peaceful but the continued heavy taxation and the exclusion of the Uitlanders from all civil rights were causes of much dissatisfaction. The murder of an Englishman named Edgar in December 1898 by Boer police, and the subsequent acquittal of the murderer, precipitated a crisis. The British Government demanded the redress of the Uitlanders' grievances and their admission to the franchise after five years' residence in the country: Protracted negotiations followed, the Boers contending that the Convention of 1884 precluded Great Britain from interfering in their internal affairs. The mobilisation of an army corps of 50,000 men for service in South Africa caused the Boer Government on 9th October to issue an ultimatum that no further British troops should be landed and those already on the frontier should be withdrawn. Non-compliance with these terms would be regarded as a declaration of war. As a result the British agent at Pretoria was withdrawn and hostilities began with the invasion of North Natal by the Boers and the capture of an armoured train near Mafeking.

In order to understand fully the stages in this war it will be well to turn aside and consider the railways of this area. On the accompanying map, showing the distribution of minerals and routes, you will notice that the routes lead inland from a few ports on the south and east coast. That from Cape Town ascends the plateau and then follows the desert edge in a north-east direction through the towns of Kimberley, Vryburg, and Mafeking, to Bulawayo in Southern Rhodesia. From that point the railway has now been

continued northward, crossing the Zambesi near the Victoria Falls, and thence to the rich copper-producing lands of the Congo basin. This railway will eventually be linked to the one being constructed along the Nile valley and will then link Cape Town in the south to the Mediterranean Sea (*see* next chapter). Notice that this route for parts of its course runs near the border of the Transvaal and the Orange Free State, and the capture of part of it would isolate the British



MAP 6.—MINERALS AND RAILWAYS OF SOUTH AFRICA.

settlers in Rhodesia. Notice also that the railway from Bulawayo *via* Salisbury, the capital of Southern Rhodesia, is linked to the coast at Beira, a part of Portuguese East Africa, and as that state preferred to remain neutral Rhodesia could not get its supplies of war material from that direction.

Railways also lead inland from Port Elizabeth and East London to Bloemfontein, the capital of the Orange Free State, Johannesburg, the centre of the gold-fields, and Pretoria, the capital of the Transvaal; but the most im-

portant strategic routes in this war were those from Johannesburg and Bloemfontein, which converged on Ladysmith, before crossing the coastal plain of Natal to Durban. If the Boers, by a rapid movement, could have secured Ladysmith and this route across the plain, they could have obtained external supplies.

At the outbreak of hostilities the Orange Free State Burghers, with whom the British Government had no quarrel, threw in their lot with the Transvaal Boers and their combined forces besieged Ladysmith, Kimberley, and Mafeking. Severe British reverses, both in the west and the east, caused the British Government to send out Lord Roberts with Lord Kitchener as chief of the staff, and the South African forces were increased to 200,000 men, among whom were many volunteers from Canada and Australia. The army was at once re-organised and Kimberley was relieved on 15th February 1900 and on Majuba Day, 27th February, General Conje with 4000 men was compelled to surrender to the British forces. On the same day General Buller, by winning the battle of Pieter's Hill, was able to relieve Ladysmith a few days later. On 13th March Bloemfontein was captured, and the Orange Free State formally annexed on 12th May. Mafeking, after a seven months siege was relieved on 17th May, and by the end of the month British forces were in Johannesburg and soon after Pretoria surrendered. The difficult nature of much of the country and the methods adopted by the Boers in the Eastern Transvaal delayed the annexation of the Transvaal and the successful termination of hostilities. A treaty of peace was signed on 31st May 1902 at Vereeniging, a Dutch word meaning uniting, and hence a happy omen for the future. Under this treaty the two republics became parts of the British Empire, and the spirit of wise conciliation, which followed the cessation of hostilities, was crowned in 1911 by the granting to South

Africa a similar form of government to that established in the Dominions of Canada and Australia. Under the title "Union of South Africa," the Cape of Good Hope Province (formerly Cape Colony), Natal, the Orange Free State, and the Transvaal became united in one Legislative Union with an elected central parliament meeting at Cape Town and a Governor-General appointed by the Crown, having his official residence at Pretoria. This Parliament makes laws and controls the taxation and customs' duties while provincial Parliaments in each state under a commissioner appointed by the Crown, manage local affairs. Since then Briton and Boer have learnt to respect each other's opinions and have settled down to the peaceful development of the country's resources. The majority of the Boers have not only dropped their bitter animosity, but under the security of a wise government have become loyal sons of our Great Empire.

To the west of British Bechuanaland, and occupying that part of the south-west coast between the Cape of Good Hope Province and Portuguese Angola, is a state known before the European War of 1914 as German South-West Africa. The 800 miles of coast contain no good harbours (with the single exception of Walvisch Bay which forms a British possession) and despite all attempts at colonisation by the Germans it remains mainly a desert land occupied by Bantus, Bushmen, and Hottentots. This region became a German possession in 1884, the land being bought from native chiefs. Risings of the Hottentots in 1904 considerably delayed attempts at progress. Railways have now been carried from the artificially constructed port of Swakopmund to the capital, Windhoek, and to the copper-producing areas of the interior. These latter have not been so productive as anticipated but the discovery of diamonds in recent years may prove valuable.

At the outbreak of hostilities in 1914 Germany tried to foment trouble in British South Africa, and by holding out



promises of regaining for the Dutch the whole of British South Africa, caused a rising, led by one or two of the Boer leaders. The majority, however, remained loyal to the British Crown, and not only was the rising soon subdued, but a German force, which had invaded British South Africa from their territory, was soon driven back and German South-West Africa was annexed by the British. The loyalty and assistance rendered by the Boer peoples during the critical years of 1914-18, especially by such leaders as Botha and Smuts, will not readily be forgotten, while the South African troops sent to German East Africa were invaluable in eventually driving the Germans out of that area. By the Peace of Paris 1919 German South-West Africa was placed under the control of the South African Government.

This chapter would be incomplete without a reference to Cecil Rhodes who for many years was the managing director of the British Chartered Company of South Africa. Not only did he realise the possibilities of the region administered by his Company and now named after its illustrious founder, but he probably had a clearer grip of South African problems than many people at home who criticised his efforts. He was one of the greatest of our Empire builders and his whole life was devoted to the expansion of the British dominions in South Africa, and by his special request his body has been interred in the Matoppo Hills, in the middle of the land which he had given his life to develop.

## CHAPTER VI.

THE PARTITION OF CENTRAL AND  
NORTHERN AFRICA.

Africa, although forming part of the Old World and in close proximity to the civilisations of Western Asia and Europe, had been so little explored until the last century that it was known as the Dark Continent. The northern shores played an important part in the early history of the world, and Carthage (Tunis) and Egypt were two of the ruling powers. It has been shown in Book I. how early in the fifteenth century the Portuguese devoted themselves to the discovery of a sea route to the East, and Bartholomew Diaz in 1488, and Vasco de Gama in 1498, sailed round the Cape of Good Hope. But these explorations only led to trading settlements and ports being made along the coast, while the French and British colonies on the west coast of Africa were similar coast trading stations to which products were brought from the interior.

In order to account for the later development of Africa it is necessary to turn to the geographical causes which retarded exploration and development. In the first place the greater part of Africa is shut off from the great Mediterranean civilisation of the Old World by the Sahara Desert, a greater barrier than even the ocean, and the shortest route across which takes three months to accomplish. If you look at a surface map of Africa you will see that it differs from the Old World in having no folded mountain ranges, and no large plains drained by long navigable rivers flowing to the coast. It consists instead of a number of block plateaux with steep edges. Hence all the rivers are impeded in their lower courses by waterfalls, and access up

stream was only made possible by the inventions of the nineteenth century. The student also should notice that



MAP 7.—AFRICA. POLITICAL DIVISIONS AND ROUTES.

the equator runs through the middle of Africa and therefore the tropical lowlands are covered with thick forests, the undergrowth of which it is almost impossible to penetrate,

while the malarial coastal plains which border the steep plateau edges of Central Africa and the unhealthy climate prevented the white man from pushing into the interior. A further study of the map will show that Africa has a regular coastline and is remarkably deficient in natural harbours which makes landing difficult.

It was not until the close of the eighteenth century that any systematic exploration into the interior took place and Africa remained an unknown land until Bruce, Mungo Park, Lander, Clapperton, Burton, Baker, Speke, Livingstone, and Stanley, made their journeys into the interior. Bruce, at the close of the eighteenth century, traced the course of the Blue Nile and Mungo Park the course and mouth of the Niger. Early in the nineteenth century our knowledge of this region was considerably increased by the explorations of Lander and the discovery of the drainage system of Lake Tchad by Clapperton. In the middle of the century Livingstone explored Lake Ngami, and thence travelled to what is now the plateau of Portuguese Angola and traced the course of the mighty Zambesi. In his second memorable journey Livingstone ascended the Zambesi, and travelling by way of Lake Nyasa, explored the eastern plateau and the upper sources of the Congo, which he imagined at that time, to be the source of the Nile.

Seven years later Stanley corrected these impressions by tracing the whole course of the Congo. In addition to these discoveries Burton and Speke had earlier in the century discovered Lakes Tanganyika and Victoria Nyanza, and Speke, in a second journey with Grant, further explored the latter lake and its connection with the Upper Nile. Baker in 1864, discovered Lake Albert whose waters also drained to the same river.

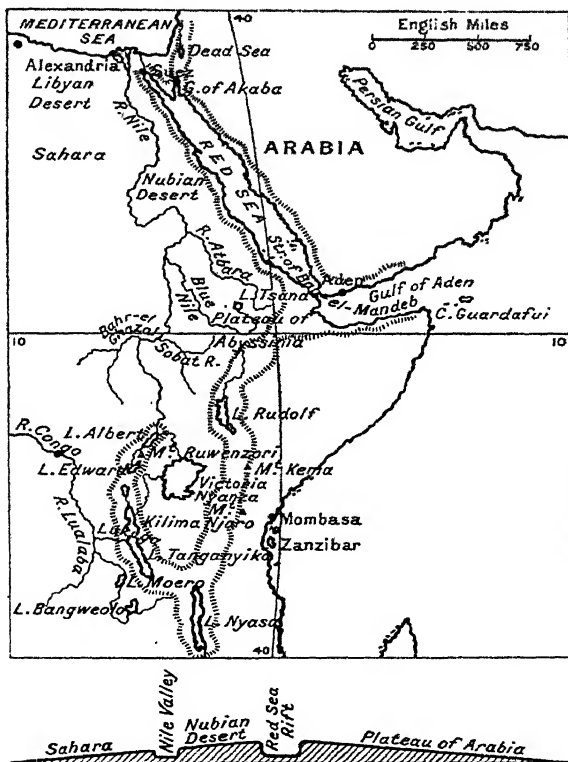
Britain had so far taken by far the largest share in the exploration of this continent but the interest of Europe was

awakened, and not only did explorers from other lands extend our knowledge of Africa, but political activity was aroused and each European nation sought to secure "spheres of influence" in this undeveloped continent. This finally led to the summoning of a European Conference at Berlin in 1884 to discuss the partition of Northern and Central Africa. The Berlin Conference determined the division of Africa, and except for a few alterations made by subsequent agreements, the political map remained the same until the European War of 1914-19. Britain, in addition to her large territories in South Africa, received areas in Central, West, and East Africa, and Egypt with Egyptian Sudan came under British control. France received large areas in Western Sudan together with Madagascar, Germany secured colonies in West, South west, and East Africa. The Congo basin was divided between Belgium and France and at the same time Portugal retained her earlier settlements in Angola and Portuguese East Africa. Italy secured a hold on the south-eastern coast of the Red Sea and in Southern Somaliland. Before concluding this chapter we will briefly survey the geography of each of these areas and show how it influenced the historical development of each, more especially in those regions which form part of the British Empire.

### *East Africa.*

From a narrow coastal plain the ascent to the steep edge of the plateau is by a series of steps or terraces. From this edge the plateau slopes gradually westward. It is crossed by two rift valleys both running southward, one from the southern end of the Red Sea, the other from the Nile. These two rifts unite in the south thus forming a letter Y. In the eastern rift are long, land-locked lakes, having no visible outlet to the sea, such as Rudolf, Baringo, and

Naivasha, while in the western rift lie Lakes Albert and Edward draining northward to the Nile, and Tanganyika



MAP 8.—EAST AFRICA. RIFT VALLEYS.

draining westward by the Lukuga to the Congo. In the southern extension lies Lake Nyasa. In addition to the lakes in the rifts there are large lakes occupying depressions

on the plateau, of which the largest is Victoria Nyanza, a sea of fresh water as large as Scotland and forming a huge reservoir to the Nile. The western edge of the rift borders the Congo basin.

As the equator passes through this region its climate is one of intense heat with heavy rains. Hence the coastal plains, the bottoms of the rift valleys and other lowland areas are thickly forested and malarial, being unfit for white habitation. As, however, the greater part of this region is elevated above the limit of malarial fever, the colder and drier climate experienced on the plateau is quite suitable to the European settler, and thus bears a striking contrast to the lowlands of the Congo basin on its western border, which are distinctly unhealthy. The plateau is covered with mixed grass and woodlands and these are the haunt of numerous wild animals, causing it to be the resort of big game hunters. Since European occupation much has been done to develop and extend the products. Coffee is grown on the slopes of the plateau, rubber on the coastal plains, and cotton both on the plateau and the plain in addition to sugar, spices, arrowroot, cocoa, bananas, and cassava. Abundant supplies of iron ore are to be found and the natives of the Eastern Plateau are skilful workers and forge spear heads from it.

The Eastern Plateau and the coastal plain came in very early ages under the influence of Arab and Hindu traders. The former established a powerful empire which extended along the greater part of the east coast, but this was broken up by the arrival of the Portuguese in the fifteenth century. These latter established trading settlements along the coast but their hold over the interior was very slight, and with the downfall of their empire in India their settlements were allowed to fall into decay. On the ruins of these the Arabs built up a second kingdom extending from Cape Guardafui

to Cape Delgado and governed from the island of Zanzibar. Thus in the latter half of the nineteenth century, when German and British interest began to assert itself in this region, the whole plateau formed a vast protectorate controlled by the Sultan of Zanzibar, the chief object of its rulers being to obtain slaves and ivory from the interior.

The British Government made no attempt to annex land in this region and even refused the offer of a protectorate over the Sultan's dominions until, in 1884, Germany obtained a foothold on the coast opposite Zanzibar. Britain then occupied Mombasa and granted a charter to the British East Africa Company to develop the interior. Two Anglo-German agreements, one in 1886, the other in 1890, defined the boundaries of British and German territory, the former extending from the Juba River in the north, to a line joining Victoria Nyanza to the Umba estuary in the south, while the latter reached southwards from this line to Cape Delgado. South of this and reaching to Natal is Portuguese East Africa occupying the coastal plain and the slopes of the plateau. The fall of the Portuguese Empire in the Indies and the suppression of the slave trade are responsible for the decay of many of the Portuguese Ports.

Bordering Lake Nyasa is the Nyasaland Protectorate an area once overrun by Arab and Yao invaders. These were eventually defeated by the British, and since the exercise of direct control over this state by the Home Government many British, chiefly Scots, have settled down and not only developed the coffee, rubber, and other resources of the interior but have exerted a civilising influence upon the Yao people.

Returning to British East Africa we must first notice that the British East Africa Company did good work in developing the western portion known as Uganda until 1894 when they handed over the administration to the Home Government.



Since British occupation not only have attempts been made to develop the resources of the country, but a railway has been built from the port of Mombasa to the capital at Nairobi and thence to Port Florence. The cost of construction of this railway was very great owing to the gradients necessary in crossing the Eastern Rift, but it provides a cheaper and more expeditious method of transport than using caravans of human porters as formerly.

Before the Great European War of 1914-18 German railways had been constructed from the port of Dar-es-Salaam inland to Taborah and thence to Ujiji. During that war British forces largely assisted by loyalists from South Africa succeeded in eliminating German influence from the Eastern Plateau, and following the Treaty of Paris in 1919 the state known formerly as German East Africa has been placed under the control of the British Government.

The remainder of Equatorial Africa is occupied by Belgian Congo whose area practically includes all the basin of that river and French Equatorial Africa and Portuguese Angola which occupy the western plateau areas on either side of the river estuary. The history of the Belgian Congo dates back to 1876, when a Belgian association financed Stanley's second expedition to the Congo, and on Stanley's return secured the consent of the European Powers to control this area with the two-fold object of developing its resources and elevating the natives. Methods of compulsion used with the natives to obtain the rich supplies of rubber earned the disapproval of the European Powers, who transferred the control from King Leopold of Belgium to the Belgian Government in 1907. Portuguese settlements made along the coast of French Equatorial Africa led to no permanent development of the interior, but since 1841 the date of the first French occupation, numerous explorations have been made into the interior.

*The Western Sudan and Guinea Coast.*

North of Equatorial Africa and lying between it and the Sahara desert is a region known as the Sudan or the land of the blacks. This is a region of summer rains and hence forms a transition area between the Equatorial Forests and Tropical Deserts. The eastern portion forms the basin of the Nile and will be studied in the next chapter and we are now going to read about the western portion which reaches to the Atlantic coast. A study of the surface map will show that the plateau south of the Sahara Desert rises to a steep edge forming the Futa Jallon Highlands and from this brink descends abruptly to the coastal plain. This causes two systems of rivers: (1) short swift rivers, obstructed by rapids, draining to the Guinea Coast and (2) continental rivers which drain the interior gradual slope. The chief continental rivers are the Senegal, the Niger, and streams flowing to the inland drainage system of Lake Tchad. The Niger sweeps round in a vast curve to the Gulf of Guinea, flowing first inland to the desert margin at Timbuctu and then turning south-east to cut through the edge of the plateau in a gorge with numerous rapids. In its lower course it receives the Benue from the east, a stream which is navigable for hundreds of miles. To the south-east of the Niger delta are the volcanic Kameruns which are similar in structure to the adjacent volcanic islands of Fernando Po and St. Thomas. There is a marked contrast between the climate and products of the Guinea Coastal Plain and the Plateau of Western Sudan. In the former, heavy rains coupled with intense heat have caused dense tropical forests, and the mangrove swamps which border the coast are malarial and unfit for white habitation. On the plateau the forests are less dense owing to a decreased rainfall, and as the precipitation of moisture decreases towards the desert edge, so the vegetation merges from forest to grass

land and poor scrub. Owing to elevation the climate on the plateau is far more healthy and suitable to white habitation. Corresponding to the contrasts in climate and vegetation there is a similar contrast in peoples; those in the coastal plain owing to the enervating effects of the moist heat are weak, backward, and lazy, and differ considerably from the physically powerful and more intellectual inhabitants of the plateau who under wise European control can be made to develop the resources of the country. It must also be noted that the Mohammedan invaders of the plateau drove the weaker negro races to the plain and the degrading influence of slave traders caused them to sink still lower in the social scale. These pagans, some of whom are cannibals, but all savage and treacherous by nature, present a great drawback to the commercial development of the plain.

The tropical forests of the coastal plain yield a valuable export of palm oil, rubber, timber, and ivory. Coffee which grows wild is now also cultivated, and attempts are being made to encourage the growth of other tropical products chiefly cotton, especially by the British in Southern Nigeria. The more healthy savannah lands of the plateau are largely agricultural, and millet and maize, cotton, wheat, tobacco and beans are produced in large quantities, while towards the desert edge where the rainfall decreases the nomadic Afab population support horses and herds of cattle.

Owing to the unhealthy tropical coastal plains, the obstruction in the rivers which drain through it from the edge of the plateau, and the treachery and savage nature of the inhabitants, much of the produce of the plateau was taken by Arab traders across the Sahara Desert by long tedious routes to the Mediterranean coast. Europeans who now control this region, especially French and English, are now constructing railways across the plain to the more healthy plateau, and this should facilitate the export of produce to

the coast. British steamers also navigate the lower Niger and the Benue, while French steamers navigate the Senegal and the Niger above its falls.

We have already noticed in Book I. that the Portuguese were the earliest explorers on this coast, and how later British and French traders, in search of gold and slaves, made settlements along this coast, the former at the Gambia mouth and along the Gold Coast, the latter in the Senegal and along French Guinea. It should be noted here that the discovery and development of the New World led to a big demand for unskilled labour, and it is doubtful whether that demand would ever have been supplied had not all European countries including Britain obtained slaves from the west coast of Africa. The traffic in slaves reached its height at the close of the eighteenth century, but already many men were considering the wisdom of forced labour. Under William Wilberforce in 1807 the opponents of the slave trade gained a great victory by the abolition of the import of slaves into the British Dominions, and in 1834 slavery was entirely abolished. After the suppression of the slave trade Britain still maintained her hold on her West African possessions, and at the close of the eighteenth century added Sierra Leone, and in 1860 Lagos to her territories, with a view of suppressing slave trading in these areas.

The Niger Coast Protectorate did not become British until 1888, and then only with the object of protecting our trade interests in this region against Germany and France. Since then peaceful treaties with the native chiefs have increased our territory to the west of the river. The development of Northern and a large part of Southern Nigeria is due to the Royal Niger Company who by making treaties with the native chiefs increased our territory eastward to the shores of Lake Tchad and considerably developed the resources of the country. In 1900 their charter was revoked, and the whole area,

including Lagos, placed directly under British Government. Ashanti was added to the Gold Coast Colony in 1874 when a British force defeated the formidable native army of that state.

During this period the French secured control over a great part of this region. Successful expeditions gave them control over the Senegal and Niger Territories. In 1884 they secured rights in the Ivory Coast and to a large hinterland reaching to the French Sudan, while in 1902, after the defeat of the native rulers, Dahomey was added to their possessions. A glance at the political map will show that French influence is paramount in this region.

In 1884 Germany secured the small colony of Togoland, and in the following year Britain ceded her rights in the Kameruns to that country. Since that time Germany has established plantations near the coast and made explorations into the interior, but the greater part is still controlled by native chiefs. In the European War of 1914-18 Britain, in order to protect her maritime and commercial interests in this region, found it necessary to take these colonies from Germany.

Although the Portuguese were the earliest explorers in this region their original possessions have decreased in size and importance until to-day they only include the small and unproductive colony of Portuguese Guinea and the islands St. Thomas and Prince's.

Liberia, as suggested by its name, was a state formed by Americans where freed slaves could return after the abolition of slavery. Founded upon the republican model of the United States, it has failed to reach the expectations of its founders, and it is now in the most backward condition of any of the West African colonies.

Originally the provinces bordering the Gulf of Guinea were merely coast stations, situated where some river caused an

outlet for the produce of the interior, while the hinterland was largely ruled over by native chiefs. Large areas in unhealthy regions such as these must still be controlled by natives but the development of roads and railways to tap the resources of the interior is carrying European influence farther inland, and the power of native chiefs has been curtailed.

*The Sahara and the North-West.*

North of the Sudan stretches the Sahara Desert, equal in area to two-thirds that of Europe. Except for the eastern portion known as the Libyan Desert which forms part of Egypt and a small Spanish possession on the west coast, the remainder is under French control. In the far north-west is the Atlas Region which is allied in structure and has a similar climate and products to the opposite shores of Europe. This is divided into the states of Morocco, Algeria, and Tunis. Algeria has been a French colony since 1834 and Tunis a French Protectorate for over thirty years, but Morocco until a few years ago remained an independent Mohammedan Sultanate. The terraced slopes of the Atlas Mountains and the fertile valleys of the Tell Region, having winter rains, produce wheat, olives, wines, and other subtropical fruits, while the plateau consists of pasture land upon which feed the noted Barbary sheep. Since French occupation, much has been done to develop both the vegetable and mineral resources, the latter consisting chiefly of iron and copper. Morocco is a country of even greater possibilities, but the bad government of the Sultan and his officials not only caused insecurity of property, but prevented the introduction of modern methods and trade. Insecurity of both life and property caused the nations of Europe to intervene and the responsibility for law and order in this area was entrusted to France and Spain, but subsequent rebellions in the following years led to France

in 1912 practically controlling this state, while the Spanish sphere of influence was limited to the coast lands bordering the Strait of Gibraltar. The extension of French power in this area aroused the jealousy of Germany, and it was felt by many statesmen that this would have caused the European War. France, however, anxious for peace, ceded to Germany part of her territory in Equatorial Africa, and an agreement thereby became possible.

To the east of the Atlas region is the semi-desert state of Tripoli, which until 1911 was a Turkish possession. It is a region of no commercial value in itself, but owing to the Sahara caravan traders who bring their products to be exchanged on its Mediterranean shores many Italian traders settled on this coast and then objected to the control exerted by the Turkish military and civil officials. Hence in 1911 Italy claimed Tripoli and a war broke out which ended the following year by Italy gaining the civil and military control, while the Sultan of Turkey remained the religious head of the Mohammedan peoples.

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## CHAPTER VII.

### EGYPT AND NORTH-EAST AFRICA.

The surface map of Africa shows that the drainage of lakes Albert and Edward in the western rift, and also that of Victoria Nyanza is carried northward to the Nile. These lakes act as great reservoirs enabling the Nile to maintain its flow, though for 1800 miles it passes through desert. In its upper course across the plateau the river makes many waterfalls, but at Lado it descends to the fertile plains of Egyptian Sudan and has a slow navigable course to Berber.

Beyond Berber the river makes a great S shaped bend and then descends by six cataracts to the plain at its mouth, where it forms a delta on the Mediterranean Sea.

To the east of the Nile, notice the steep brink edges of the Abyssinian Plateau overlooking the Red Sea which are roughly parallel to the edges of the Arabian Plateau. From this steep eastern edge the plateau slopes gradually westward and is drained by the Sobat, Blue Nile, and Atbara, tributaries which bring to the Nile the surplus waters due to the monsoon rains which fall on the Abyssinian Plateau. It is upon these flood waters and the alluvium which they bring down that the whole fertility of Egypt depends.

A further study of the surface map of this area will show that the brink edges of the plateau in the south are continued at right angles, parallel to the shores of Arabia, to Cape Guardafui and the island of Socotra. This area, geographically known as the Eastern Horn of Africa, forms the states of British Somaliland occupying the northern shores bordering the Gulf of Aden, and Italian Somaliland facing towards the Indian Ocean. Where the Red Sea narrows in the south to form the Strait of Bab-el-Mandeb, is the French colony of Obock, opposite to Aden, and north of this, occupying the coastal strip bordering the Red Sea, is the Italian province of Eritrea.

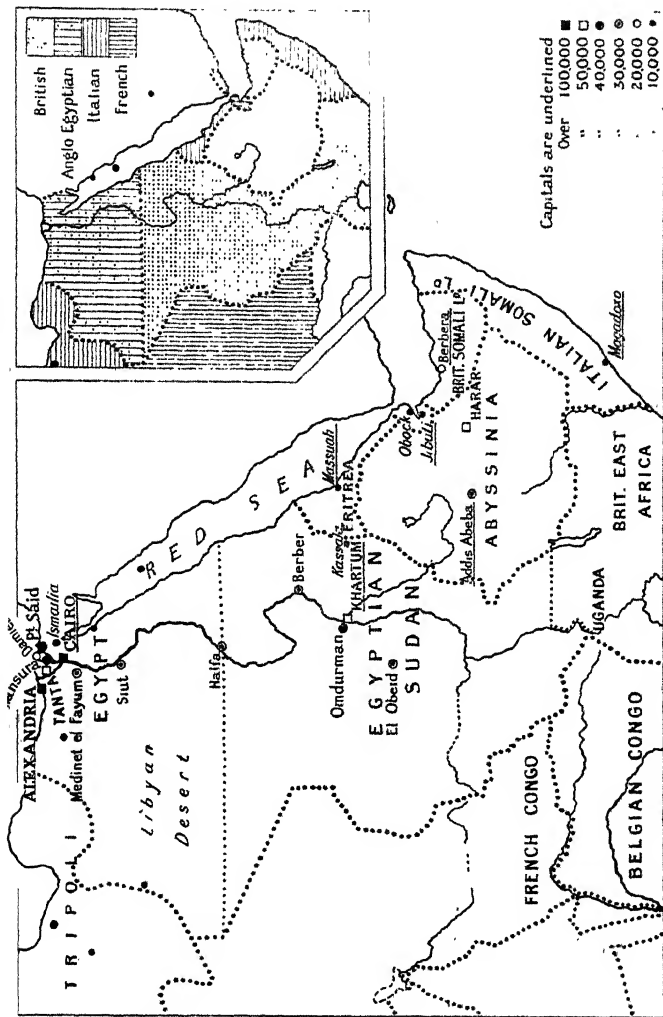
As the Nile possesses a northerly course of 3500 miles reaching from the equator to the Mediterranean, it passes through different zones of climate varying with their latitudes. In the far south of this region there are torrential rains for ten months in the year, but both the amount of the rainfall and the length of the wet season decrease farther north, until in Egypt Proper there is an area practically devoid of rain. These climatic changes have their consequent effect on the flora which passes from tropical forests through open woods, savannahs, and steppes, to desert conditions



except where the flood waters of the Nile have caused a narrow band of green vegetation which links the Mediterranean to tropical Africa.

The Plateau of Abyssinia experiences heavy summer monsoon rains which not only result in the overflow of the Nile and its tributaries, but are largely responsible for the broken nature of the country which makes it difficult of invasion. Hence Abyssinia is the only country in Africa which is independent of European influence. The Eastern Horn of Africa, being much less elevated, has only a slight rainfall, and this decreasing towards the south-east causes desert conditions in that area. The Red Sea coast lands are for the most part arid sandy plains receiving only a little rain in summer.

Since Britain obtained control in Egypt Proper modern engineering works have been constructed to control the flood waters of the Nile. Dams or barrages have been erected across the Rosetta and Damietta branches of the river, and at Aswan and Siut, while the land on either side of the river has been cut into a number of basins by means of dykes or embankments, and the waters are conveyed to these basins by means of canals. By this means it has been made possible to grow two or more crops per year and large crops of cotton, sugar, rice (in the delta), maize, and indigo, are now grown in addition to the wheat, barley, flax, onions, beans, lentils, and other pulses formerly produced. Along the Blue Nile the soil is very fertile, and lands which now produce millet, maize, and pulses, could be turned into rich cotton and wheat producing lands. Since Anglo-Egyptian Sudan has had a settled government, large irrigation works have been established in Dongola and cotton of excellent quality is being grown. The extension of these irrigation works, under the more settled government now established, should cause an increased growth in the upper basin of the



MAP 2. — EGYPT AND NORTH-EAST AFRICA.

river of rice and cultivated rubber in addition to wheat and cotton. On either side of the Middle Nile the savannah lands away from the river are prairies of tall grass, and the natives are now being encouraged to export the cattle and sheep from these districts.

Except for extensive deposits of such building materials as granite, sandstone, limestone, and clay, Egypt Proper is deficient in minerals, but Egyptian Sudan has rich supplies of copper in the Darfur country and plentiful supplies of iron ore are found in the Congo-Nile waterparting.

The elevated plateaux of Abyssinia are devoted mainly to pasture upon which cattle, sheep, goats, and horses are fed in addition to camels, but the damper slopes produce large quantities of coffee while tropical products including cotton, vines, wheat, and maize are also grown. Somaliland, owing to its deficient rainfall, is mainly a desert region, its nomadic population feeding camels, sheep, and goats on the poor pasture.

Railways and river navigation are not only necessary to full development of this region but as the Nile forms a connecting link between Equatorial Africa and the Mediterranean, this valley should provide an important passage for the products of Central Africa to reach Alexandria, which is within reach of the trade centres of Europe. River steamers have regular services on the navigable parts of the Nile, and by this means it is possible to ascend the river from Khartum to Lado. Railways link Alexandria to Cairo at the apex of the delta, and from this point a railway following the Nile valley is being constructed, which will eventually be linked to the Uganda Railway and also to the route which has been carried northward from Cape Town *via* Bulawayo and the Victoria Falls into the Congo basin, making through communication between Cape Town and Cairo. This railway now reaches to Khartum and Sennar and a

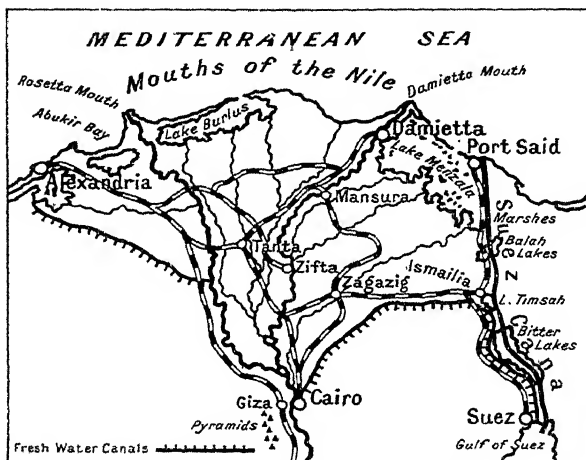
branch from the latter is carried out to El Obeid the centre of the savannah lands of Kordofan, while from Berber a line has been constructed linking it to Port Sudan on the Red Sea coast.

Although steamers navigate the Blue Nile to the Abyssinian border the main means of transport from that country has been by camel caravan, but during recent years the French, from the port of Jibuti in their small colony of Obock, have constructed a railway to Addis Abeba the Abyssinian capital, and the Italians are also constructing railways inland from their port of Massuah.

Before turning to the history of this area it will be necessary to study a little more in detail the land to the east of the Nile delta. The surface map shows that the Red Sea forms two forks at its northern end, the Gulf of Suez and the Gulf of Akaba. Between the Gulf of Suez and the Mediterranean Sea is the Isthmus of Suez, a depression occupied by the Bitter Lakes and Lake Timsah. Across this isthmus and connecting these lakes the Suez Canal has been cut, which by converting Africa into an island, saves 3000 miles on the journey to India and the Far East. Although the canal administration is international in character, yet Britain has the largest financial interest in it and 80 per cent of the ships passing through it fly the British flag.

In Book I. we have seen how Napoleon invaded Egypt with the object of using it as a base from which to attack India by overland routes, and how Nelson by the defeat of the French Fleet at the Battle of the Nile, frustrated this attempt by cutting off his reinforcements. The cutting of the Suez Canal was an important event in British commercial history. Once more it made the Mediterranean Sea a great highway of the world's trade to India and the far East, and gave to Gibraltar the western gate of the Mediterranean, and Malta a strategic and commercial importance,

while it became necessary to establish a Mediterranean Fleet to protect our commerce in these waters. Egypt was now not only valuable because of its resources, but because of its strategic position, while Aden, ceded by the Arabs in 1838, and Perim, a small island annexed in 1857, were important as guarding the southern entrance to the Red Sea. For similar reasons the transfer of British Somaliland



MAP 10.—THE SUEZ CANAL.

from Egypt in 1886, was of importance as this province occupies the shores facing the Gulf of Aden.

With the history of Egypt dawned the earliest recorded history of Africa. In 4400 B.C. the first great, Egyptian Empire was founded, and the pyramids, tombs, sculptures, statues, sphinxes, obelisks, and temples which line the Nile banks are evidences of the power of this kingdom. In the early part of the Christian Era Egypt succumbed to Roman invasion and following this came the introduction of Christ-

ianity which later was followed by a great Mohammedan Arab Conquest which lasted for 900 years.

In the sixteenth century the Turks obtained control in Egypt but deputed most of their power to Egyptian rulers. Mention has already been made of Nelson's defeat of the French Fleet at Aboukir Bay at the close of the eighteenth century, and since that time the rule of Turkey in this region has been purely nominal. Between 1800 and 1860 Egypt steadily advanced her boundaries southward to include the whole Nile basin under the able rule of Mehemet Ali.

During the reigns of his successors French influence increased in this area, and in 1869 the Suez Canal, constructed by M. Ferdinand de Lesseps, was opened. The reigning Khedive at that time was Ismail Pasha, who by his extravagant habits plunged himself deeply into debt. In 1875, in order to raise more money, he sold his shares in the Suez Canal to the British Government for £4,000,000. This sum, however, did not save him from bankruptcy, and Britain and France, in order to secure the interest of their creditors, took over the control of Egyptian finances and at the same time Ismail was deposed in favour of his son.

Dissatisfaction among the Egyptians at European interference led to a rising in 1882 under Arabi Pasha. Britain determined to suppress this revolt and maintain the new Khedive's position, but as France declined to co-operate with her, their control in this area came to an end. Alexandria was bombarded by British warships and Arabi's forces were entirely defeated at Tel-el-Kebir by an army under General Sir Garnet Wolseley. In order to maintain order it became necessary to keep a British army in the country. Since that time the Egyptian army has been reorganised under an adviser appointed by Britain, while her finances have been placed on a sound basis and have been used to increase the prosperity and security of the country.

In Egyptian Sudan, where Mehemet Ali had steadily advanced his boundaries, bad government, heavy taxation, and the corrupt methods of administration used by the government's officials in Ismail's reign, caused a rebellion. This fanatical Mohammedan rising, led by the Mahdi (the Guided—the successor to the Prophet), spread rapidly, and Egypt lost ground until Khartum was captured in 1885 and its gallant defender, General Gordon, murdered. The Mahdists then overran the whole Sudan, advancing as far as Suakin which was held by a British garrison. For ten years Egypt abandoned the whole of her possessions south of Halfa, and Emin Pasha, the Egyptian governor of the Equatorial Nile, had to retreat from the capital, Lado, to Wadelai near Lake Albert, where he was relieved by the Stanley expedition of 1889. The death of the Mahdi, who was the moving spirit of the rebellion, and the weaker generalship of his successor, the Khalifa, resulted in his defeat by the Anglo-Egyptian army under Lord Kitchener at Omdurman in 1898. During this campaign troops from New South Wales and Canada by their assistance gave proof of their loyalty to the Empire. The French, now devoid of control in this region, opposed our policy and French troops marched to Fashoda and there met Kitchener in 1898. Only the intervention of King Edward VII. at this juncture prevented war between the two countries.

From 1899 to 1914 Egypt south of Halfa was controlled by a joint administration of Egypt and Britain and the advantages of a settled government had already been evidenced in the increasing productivity of this region. The outbreak of the European War in 1914 led Germany in alliance with Turkey to attempt an invasion of Egypt, and as the reigning Khedive was known to have secret communications with Turkey he was deposed, and the whole area, including Egypt Proper and Egyptian Sudan, was made a Protectorate and

a Sultan appointed to administer the government under British control. Although the Turkish forces in the earlier months of the war advanced to the Suez Canal, yet in 1916-18, British forces under General Allenby, steadily drove them back and compelled them to evacuate Palestine.

## CHAPTER VIII.

### INDIA.

THE history of India during the eighteenth and early part of the nineteenth centuries falls into three periods. The first forty years, dealing with the competitive conquest with the French, and the succeeding period dealing with the gradual decline of the French danger and the establishment of a British Empire in India, have been referred to at some length in Book I. The third period deals with the advent of a new danger in the north-west consequent upon the growing power of Russia in Central Asia.

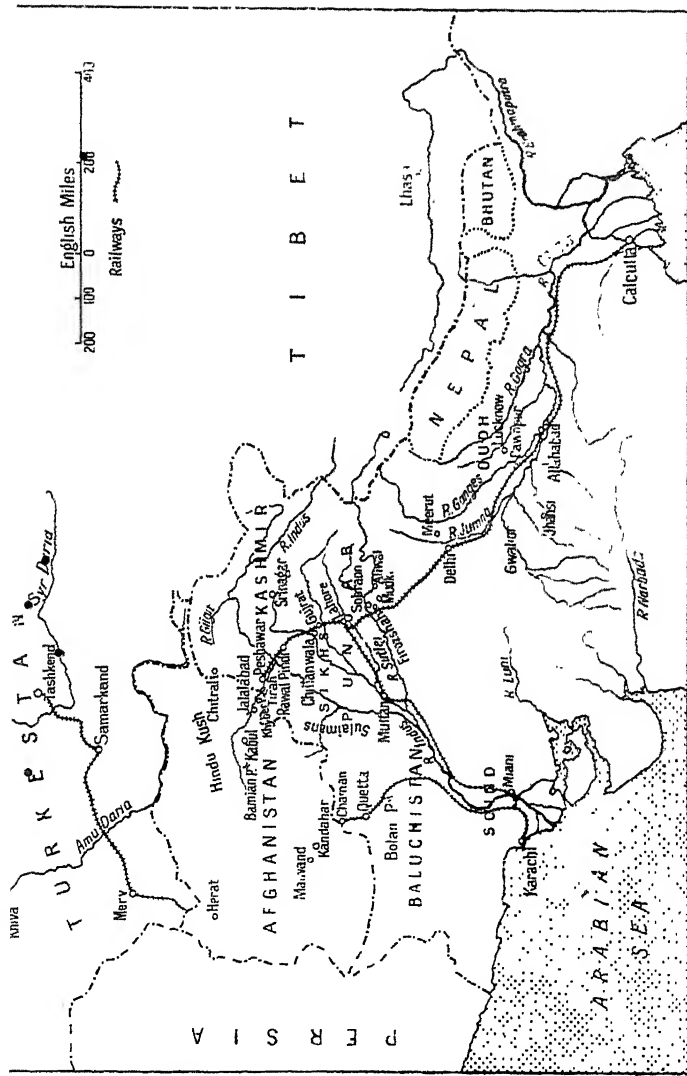
In studying the surface features in the earlier volume we noted that lofty mountains formed the land borders of India, and that only on the north-west could an invading army enter the country. It was across that north-west frontier that all invasions took place until the Europeans attacked it from the sea. It was feared that Russia in her expansion had designs on India and would enter the Indo-Gangetic Plain by the same paths. Russia's occupation of Turkestan, comprising the basins of the Sir and Amu rivers, extended her borders to the mountain wall of the Hindu Kush, and between that range and the Sulaimans lay the mountainous wedge shaped country of Afghanistan. The Bamian Pass in the Hindu Kush and the Khyber Pass in the Sulaimans provided the most accessible means for Russia to enter India.



North of this the Gilgit tributary, rising near the Sir, provides a more difficult and intricate passage, while to the south, routes *via* Herat and Kandahar, could cut through the Sulaimans at the Bolan Pass. Between the Russian and British territory at this time were Afghanistan and the Punjab, the former occupied by a Mohammedan people, the latter by Hindu Sikhs, and these two people at enmity with one another, acted as a bulwark between the rival European Powers.

Treaties with Persia increased Russian influence to the south, and when Persia, with Russia's connivance, invaded Afghanistan and besieged Herat, it was found necessary to send a British squadron to the Persian Gulf. Its appearance was sufficient to cause the Persians to abandon the siege of Herat.

Dost Mahamed usurped the throne of Afghanistan, and secret intrigues which he carried on with the Russians made it necessary for Lord Auckland to march an army through Scind to Kandahar and Kabul. In 1839 Dost Mahamed was replaced on the throne by Shah Shuja, the rightful heir, a weakling who was unable to gain the confidence of his people. We therefore left an army in occupation to keep the peace. This army was a long way from its base, and transport by devious routes across Scind was made still more difficult by the Sikhs who were unwilling to allow us to cross their territory. In 1841 the Afghans rose in rebellion under Akbar Khan, the son of Dost Mahamed. Sir William Macnaughten, the British Envoy, was murdered while attempting to deal with the insurgents, and when the British force was tempted to leave the security of the citadel at Kabul it was easily defeated and found itself forced to retreat through hostile country. Harassed by swarms of Afghans in trying to cross the mountains, only one survivor succeeded in making his way to Jalalabad, the nearest British post.



MAP 11.—NORTHERN INDIA.

In order to maintain British prestige it was necessary to take vengeance on the Afghans, and while a British army marched on Kandahar another marched *via* Peshawar to Kabul. The Afghans were taught respect for British rule, and although Dost Mahamed was allowed to retain the throne, which he had usurped, he did not defy British authority again.

These Afghan campaigns made us realise the necessity for controlling both Scind and the Punjab, and as Scind had refused to help the British relief force which was sent to Afghanistan under Pollock, and the rulers at Gwalior delayed and trifled with the Governor-General's demands, an invading force under Napier entered their territory in 1843. At the battle of Miani the forces of Gwalior were defeated and Scind became a British province. Thus the mouths of the Indus and the important port of Karachi were added to the British possessions and the whole coast-line of India was under British rule.

In the Punjab a far more difficult task confronted the British Government. In Book I we traced the rise of the Sikhs who had successfully driven the Afghans beyond the Sulaiman Mountains. Treaties with Ranjit Singh, their ruler, had limited the boundaries of his territory to the west of the Sutlej river, the Cis-Sutlej Sikhs preferring to live under British protection. Relations with Ranjit Singh were amicable during his life time, but at his death in 1839 his son, a minor, came to the throne, and the control passed into the hands of the mother-regent. Intrigues and treachery followed, and the well-disciplined army of 30,000 soldiers, which Ranjit Singh had trained on the European model, became eager to try their skill against the British. Eventually, in 1845, they broke their treaty and crossed the Sutlej. A British force, fearing this might happen, was ready to meet them. Desperate battles, in which the British losses were very heavy, were fought at Mudki, and later at Ferozshah,

and the Sikhs were driven back to the river. They were, however, a most resolute enemy and would not give in until Sir Harry Smith brought against them his heavy artillery at Aliwal and the combined forces of Gough and Smith utterly defeated them at Sohraon. Peace was then concluded and the Punjab became a British protectorate with a Resident at Lahore. Some territory was ceded to the British while Kashmir was detached and placed in charge of an upland chief.

Two years later the Sikhs were again in revolt. The Sikh governor at Multan, a town on the Jumna, refused to send in his financial report, and when two British officers were sent to take over his governorship they were treacherously murdered. This was the signal for the commencement of hostilities but Gough, owing to the hot weather, delayed sending an army, and it was left to a young officer, named Edwardes, with a small force to drive an army ten times the size towards Multan and there besiege it. The Sikhs, however, were gathering strength and, allied with the Afghans, made a strong force which was able to defeat the British army under Gough at Chilianwala. A more carefully planned battle at Gujrat gave the victory to the British. After that the Sikh forces never recovered and surrendered at Rawal Pindi in 1849. The Punjab was now annexed and the infant ruler, Maharajah Dhulip Singh, was sent to England.

Britain owes much to the brothers Lawrence for the peaceful settlement of this area after the war. The mass of the Sikhs were disarmed, but many enlisted in the British army. The new frontier was defended by forts and roads and the Pathan tribes who inhabit this border kept in check by a body of troops. State forests, canals, and roads were laid out, irrigation schemes adopted, and the whole land made more productive, while better management of the finances lessened the burden of taxation.

To the east of the Punjab, and to the south of the moun-

tainous province of Nepal, lies the province of Oudh, drained by the northern tributaries of the Ganges. For many years the government of this area had been characterised by anarchy and misrule and the reigning Nawab persisted in his misconduct of affairs despite repeated warnings from the British Government. During the term of office of Dalhousie as Governor-General, Oudh was annexed in 1856. Thorough reforms in the land system followed, and the loss of privileges and revenues by the landlords of Oudh was one of the causes of the Mutiny which followed later.

The danger of Russian action on our north-west frontier, coupled with the difficulty of keeping the Mohammedan natives in order, occupied the attention of the Indian Government for the greater part of the nineteenth century, but serious trouble did not arise until in 1863 Dost Mahamed died, and the rival claims of eighteen brothers caused much civil strife in Afghanistan. In 1869 Sher Ali became Amir, and deliberately made overtures to the Russians who, from Khiva, had advanced up the Sir and Amu rivers to the Persian and Afghanistan border. When Lord Lytton, the Viceroy, met with a refusal from the Amir to accept a British envoy Britain declared war on Afghanistan. A British force marched upon Kandahar and two others upon Kabul, and Sher Ali fled to the mountains. His son and successor, Yakub, by the Treaty of Gandamak ceded the territory between the Indus valley and the chief mountain passes and agreed to receiving the British envoy, Sir Louis Cavagnari. Again we left an army in occupation and again the Afghans revolted and murdered the British resident. General Fredericks (afterwards Earl) Roberts marched on Kabul and occupied it in 1879, deposing the new Amir. His cousin, Abdurrahman, was now placed on the throne but a rival claimant in Yakub's brother was successful in defeating the British force under Burrows at Maiwand and besieging Kandahar. Roberts

marching from Kabul was successful in driving away these besieging forces, but civil war continued until Abdurrahman defeated his rival.

In 1885 Russia agreed to settle the boundary with Afghanistan, and later the Indian Government, by treaty with the Afghans and the Baluchi chiefs, occupied Baluchistan, and thus controlled the area between the sea and the Afghan-Persian border. Quetta was made a strong fortress to guard the Bolan Pass and a railway from Karachi now runs northward through Quetta to Chaman. Further north Peshawar is a similar fortress, connected by rail both with Karachi and Calcutta. The wild Pathan tribes who occupy this north-western frontier are continually giving trouble, and expeditions to Chitral in 1895 and Tirah in 1897 were found necessary. Peace now reigned in Afghanistan under the successor of Abdurrahman, and the more friendly relations which were maintained between the Russian and the British Governments put an end to the danger which once existed. This friendly feeling was evidenced in 1907 when Russia entered into an agreement not to interfere in Afghanistan or in South-eastern Persia. Following upon the European War attempts were made by Britain's enemies to cause rebellions in Northern India, while the assassination of the ruling Amir of Afghanistan was followed by attacks on the British which were only subdued after much damage had been done.

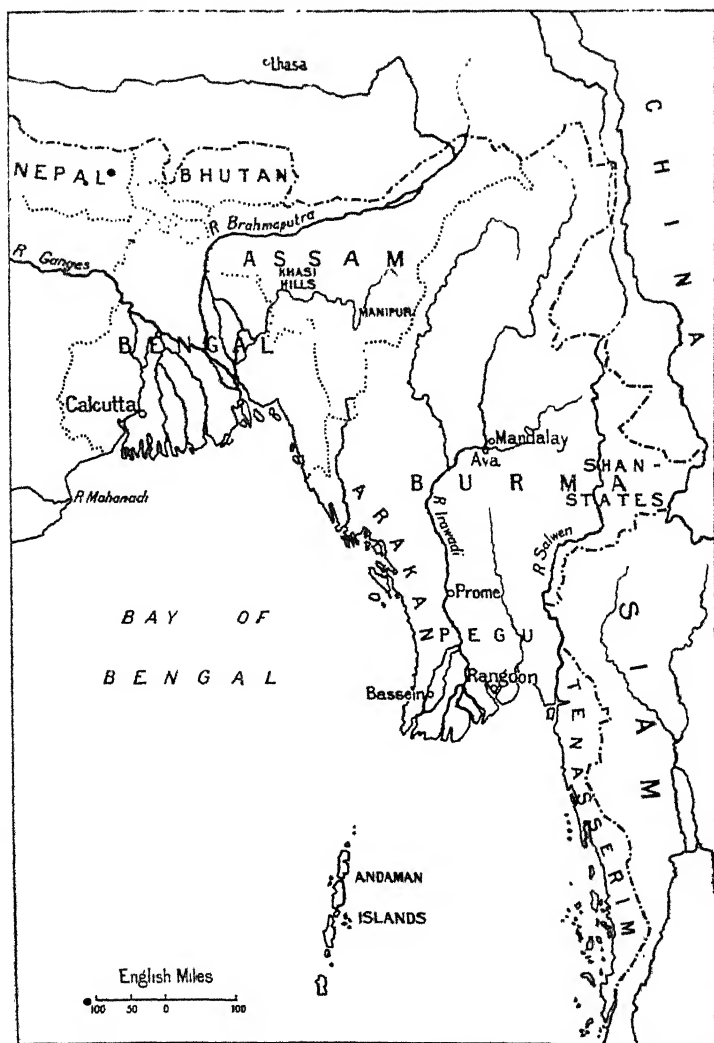
We must now turn our attention to the Eastern border. The reader should remember that the Himalayas on the east trend in a southward direction forming a corrugated structure of parallel mountain ridges separated by deep longitudinal valleys. These valleys are drained by rivers which cannot overflow until they reach the coastal plains at their mouths where they form deltas. The whole area receives heavy rains, and the heat and moisture are responsible not only for dense tropical forests, but cause an unhealthy climate un-

suitable for Europeans. The corrugated mountain structure makes travelling from east to west a difficult matter, and settlement in this area took place from the sea and followed the river valleys inland. The same river valleys to-day are used both by river steamers and railways to reach the interior.

The basins of the Irawadi and the Salwen, together with much of the Malay Peninsula, form the province of Burma, and in 1824 its people forced themselves through the hills of Manipur, and occupied the coast lands bordering the Bay of Bengal. Lord Amherst, the Governor-General, sent a force against them which, landing at the mouth of the Irawadi, forced a passage up that river to Ava, the Burmese capital. As a result of the success of this expedition Assam became British and the whole coast-line of the Bay of Bengal, as far south as Tenasserim on the Malay Peninsula, came under British control.

The semi-ignorant Burmese kings, shut off from the remainder of the world by mountain barriers, never properly understood British power, and twenty years later the insults offered to the British resident and the treatment meted out to British traders, were such that another campaign became necessary. Dalhousie, the Governor-General, proposed an expedition, taking all precautions in dealing with the unhealthy climate, so that sickness and death should be reduced to a minimum. As a result of this campaign in 1852-53 the Burmese were driven from Rangoon, and the river valley opened up to Prome and the province of Pegu became part of the British Empire.

Although defeated the Burmese sovereign sulked in his capital, while his people adopted an insolent attitude to British officials and treacherously interfered with the traders. Meanwhile another danger threatened when the French, anxious to build up another empire in the East, began



MAP 12.—BURMA.



to get a foothold in Indo-China. The Burmese were ready to ally themselves with the French if it would weaken British hold in this region. In 1878 a new king Theebaw was crowned, and in the early part of his reign, trading steamers were attacked, trading companies interfered with, British districts raided, and worse than all French assistance in money and ammunition was obtained in exchange for trading privileges and railway concessions.

Strong measures became necessary, and an ultimatum demanding that Theebaw should rule under our protection being rejected, war was declared. In 1886 Mandalay was captured, the king deposed, and Burma became a British Province. Some time however elapsed before peaceful development was possible owing to the numerous dacoits or robber gangs which infested the mountain gorges. The organisation of Upper Burma was, however, successfully accomplished and now under a Lieutenant-Governor with a local legislature it is as progressive as any other Indian province.

Ten years later the eastern frontier towards Siam was settled by agreement with the French, and the frontier from Siam to Persia are now all settled by international conventions. Except for a brief war with Bhutan in 1864 and the expedition of Colonel Younghusband to Lhasa the capital of Tibet in 1904 there have been no incidents of importance on other parts of the land border.

Having now traced the events which determined the land borders of our great Indian Empire from Chitral in the extreme north-west to the Mekong River in the south-west we will consider the internal affairs of India and trace the events which led to the establishment of an Indian Government, as it exists at the present day. In the previous volume we learnt of the work of Wellesley and Hastings in the settlement of the native wars among the Mahrattas, the Ghurkas, the Pindaris, and in Mysore. Lord Amherst succeeded

Hastings as Governor-General and during his five years of office from 1823-28 the Burmese War occupied much of his attention. From 1826 onwards there was a period of peace for twelve years and Lord Bentinck who was Governor-General from 1828-34 effected many reforms which made for the intellectual, moral, and commercial prosperity of the Indian Empire. In the words of Lord Macaulay he was "A man who infused into Oriental Despotism the spirit of British Freedom, who never forgot that the end of government is the happiness of the governed, who abolished cruel rites, who effaced humiliating distinctions, who gave liberty to the expression of public opinion: whose constant duty it was to elevate the intellectual and moral character of the nation committed to his charge." Among the many reforms which he enacted were (1) a reorganisation of the Courts of Justice, (2) economy in the methods of land administration, (3) a reduction in the exorbitant pay of military officers, and (4) the entrusting of minor offices in the Government to the natives themselves. This last reform not only relieved the British officials from much routine work but saved the Company money and at the same time pleased those reformers who wanted self-government applied to India.

Two great evils prevented, however, the moral improvement of India. The one was the murders carried out by a fanatical religious sect known as the Thugs; the other, Suttee, was a usage long prevalent in India in accordance with which, on the death of her husband, the faithful widow burned herself on the funeral pyre with her husband's body. These two customs had such a hold on the people that previous administrators had been afraid to attack them. Bentinck, however, decided to suppress both evils, and in 1834 Suttee was abolished and the Thugs' practices were suppressed in the following year. The land settlements among the people were carefully arranged especially in the north-west, all the

occupiers becoming direct tenants of the Crown and periodical and impartial revision of the rents paid by them took place from time to time.

Bentinck's establishment of good government was a good thing for the Company, and when its Charter came up for renewal in 1833 he proved that India could pay its way without the profits from the monopoly of the China Trade, which was accordingly abolished. Other mercantile interests were also removed when the Charter was renewed and the Company's servants now found themselves able to govern India entirely for its own benefit, and without the constant thought of providing profits for the Company. Natives were later admitted to the Civil Service, while the difficulty of conducting cases in which many different dialects and languages were used caused English to be adopted as the official language.

The tenure of office of Lords Auckland, Ellenborough and Hardinge, who in turn occupied the post of Governor-General, is marked by the Afghan and Sikh Wars, and little was done to promote further the prosperity of India until Dalhousie assumed office in 1848. His was a strong administration and is marked by the successful termination of the Sikh Wars in the north-west and the Burmese campaign in the south-east. The excellent work carried out by the brothers Lawrence in the settlement of the Punjab under Dalhousie's direction has already been noted, and these improvements were also carried out in other parts of India. Roads and canals, railways and telegraphs were made linking all parts of the country together. He also established cheap postage and encouraged the foundation of a modern system of education. India owes much to the genius of Dalhousie who, from a number of scattered territories bordering the sea and defensible therefrom, welded them into a solid mass. His policy with reference to the native states is, however, open to question, and in the opinions

of some critics was the cause of the Indian Mutiny. It had long been the custom of the rulers of the native territories to adopt an heir should they have no one to succeed them. Dalhousie would not recognise these adopted heirs and annexed the states without a legal successor. Among these lapsed provinces were Nagpur, Satara, and Jhansi, and the adopted heirs of these territories felt their grievances keenly. We have already noticed that the landowners of Oudh did not like the reforms made in the land system consequent upon the removal of the Nawabs from office. Large numbers of Sepoys or native troops were drawn from these discontented people of Oudh, and this discontent spread rapidly among the army in Bengal.

Several other causes were, however, at work which resulted in the Mutiny of 1857. Mohammedan and Hindu agitators tended to incite the people by superstitious prophecies that British rule would come to an end one hundred years after Plassey. The withdrawal of British regiments from India for the Crimean War and false reports of British losses in that campaign only gave further credence to this prophecy. The native army, more than eight times greater than the British, was swollen with pride over the victories which had been achieved against the Afghans, the Sikhs, and the Burmese, and was more than anxious to try conclusions with its British masters. Two events while Canning—Dalhousie's successor—was in charge brought matters to a head. An order that native troops should serve overseas if required roused those natives who were forbidden by their caste to cross the water, and when a rumour was spread abroad that the new Enfield rifles were smeared with fat obtained from the sacred cow and the unclean pig both Hindu and Mohammedan prejudices were offended. Although the cartridges were withdrawn the native army would not be pacified and were determined on war. It should be noted before pro-

ceeding further that the Indian Mutiny was purely local and confined to the Ganges basin; the Sepoys both of Madras and Bombay remained loyal to the British flag as also did the Sikhs of the Punjab.

On 10th May 1857 the Mutiny broke out at Meerut where the Sepoys killed the British officers, and then marched to Delhi to proclaim the old Moghul Emperor as Ruler of India. The mutiny spread rapidly to other garrisons and was joined by the native civilian population. The mutinous Sepoys of Oudh besieged Lucknow where the British garrison was in charge of Henry Lawrence. Nana Sahib, the disappointed adopted heir of the Peshwa at Satara, attacked Cawnpur and forced it to surrender when the British troops together with their wives and children were cruelly massacred. A few disaffected Mahrattas rose under the leadership of the Rani of Jhansi, a deposed princess, but the majority of the Mahratta princes remained loyal.

British garrisons in Lower Bengal were able to prevent any attack on the capital and to keep that part of the country quiet while the Punjab army, among whom were many newly-recruited Sikhs, captured Delhi. General Havelock pushed forward to the relief of Lucknow but the siege was not raised until November when Sir Colin Campbell attacked the Sepoys with a stronger force. At the same time Sir Hugh Rose, marching from Bombay, took Jhansi and Gwalior, and by June 1858 the whole rebellion was stamped out.

The Mutiny taught the Government that the task of governing India was far too great and difficult to be entrusted to the dual control of the Crown and a private company. True this Company had for years exerted no real powers, and all the trading privileges which it once enjoyed had gradually been taken away from it. Yet the existence of the Company gave it certain rights of interference, and it was felt that the Government must be unfettered in this

control. Therefore, by the India Act of 1858, both the Company and the Board of Control were abolished. The government was placed in the hands of a Secretary of State for India, with a council of advisers and a separate department at Westminster, while a Viceroy exercised supreme control in India. Lord Canning, the last Governor-General of the Company, became the first Viceroy, and at a great Durbar or assembly held at Allahabad on 1st November 1858 Queen Victoria was proclaimed ruler of India. This proclamation granted to the people absolute religious toleration, the maintenance of all existing rights and treaties, administration without fear or favour, justice on the murderers, and an amnesty to those who had been misled by ambitious princes.

Thus after 250 years the East India Company came to an end. In the early part of its existence it achieved the objects for which it was originally founded, but the conquest of India against French rivalry laid upon it a burden of responsibility which it was not capable of, nor even intended to bear. For a century before its end it had outgrown the objects for which the Company was formed, and the dual control between the Government and the Company's officials was but a patchwork remedy which was bound sooner or later to fail. The abolition of the Company was a step in the advancement of our Indian Empire, but we should not forget that had it not been for the progress achieved by the Company during the first half of its existence there would probably be no British Empire in India to-day. The Indian prophecy that the Company's rule would terminate on the centenary of the battle of Plassy thus came true, but it was superseded not as they had anticipated, by the restoration of the old monarchy, but by the direct control of a State Department responsible to the British Government. This new Department was faced with a most difficult problem. The government

of 300,000,000 peoples of many diverse races and religions, each with its own religious rites and customs, is in itself a difficult task, and when we add to this the necessity for making such reforms as would cause a peaceful settlement of the people, and the fact that modern India in this new era was to pass from a number of simple agricultural states, each supplying its own needs, to a commercial and industrial nation, such a Government was presented with new problems every day for solution. The wise and impartial administration of Canning, the first Viceroy, and the continuity of policy preserved by such governors as Elgin, Mayo, and Ripon, not only gained the loyalty and co-operation of the native pioneers but allowed the foundations to be laid upon which Modern India was to be built.

One of the first results of the change of government was the reversal of Dalhousie's Policy of annexing those provinces which had no direct heir, or which showed any signs of misrule or want of loyalty to the British Crown. Thus, while Lord Northbrook was Viceroy, the Gaekwer of Baroda murdered the British resident, and instead of annexing the state the Government placed a capable kinsman on the throne in his place. Another instance of this policy occurred during Lord Ripon's administration. During the minority of the Raja of Mysore the administration of that state was in such a wretched condition that the government felt compelled to take it over, but when the Raja came of age the state, which had been placed on a firm foundation, was once again placed in his charge. Loyalty was thus encouraged, and in all succeeding reforms the rites and customs of religion and caste, which enter so largely into the life of the natives, were most carefully considered and everything possible was done to avoid offending these religious and social observances.

The Indian Mutiny showed the advisability of entirely remodelling the army. The proportion of native to British

troops was reduced to two to one in Bengal and three to one in other parts of India. It was also found advisable to use only British forces in the artillery. Under such brilliant generals as Lord Roberts, Sir George White, and Lord Kitchener, the Indian army has been turned into an excellent fighting force whose troops are largely recruited from the Ghurkas of Nepal and the Sikhs of the Punjab and natives from many other provinces.

The Indian native's love of state pageantry with all its costly robes and pomp and splendour was appealed to by the state assemblies or Durbars held by Elgin and succeeding Viceroy. The visit of the Prince of Wales to India in 1876 was the occasion of another of these Durbars at Calcutta, and return visits paid by the Prince to the native princes of Northern India did much to promote the loyalty to the British Crown. The Proclamation by Queen Victoria of her adoption of the title of Empress of India appealed to the natives' imagination, while the proclamation of King Edward VII. as Emperor of India in 1902 was the occasion of another state pageant at Delhi during the viceroyalty of Lord Curzon. All these state functions however were completely overshadowed when King George V. directly after his coronation signified his intention of paying a visit to India. Never before had these native subjects had an opportunity of seeing their white ruler. The scene at the Delhi Durbar held in December 1911 was one of dazzling splendour at which each native prince vied with his neighbour in the magnificence of his state appointments. The proclamation of King George at that Durbar that the capital of India would be removed from Calcutta to the old Moghul capital at Delhi, and that henceforth Bengal instead of being separated into two should be united into one province aroused the native enthusiasm, and by settling problems over which there had been much agitation, ensured a loyal and peaceable



people. Delhi, occupying the natural gateway between the Indus and the Ganges, and thus able to control both areas is a much more convenient geographical centre from which to govern the country.

Towards the end of the nineteenth century disastrous famines wrought much havoc among the native population. First Orissa, in 1866, lost one quarter of its population, while two years later famine affected the Upper Ganges valley. In 1874 it was in Lower Bengal, but the worst famine occurred in Peninsular India in 1877 when over five million people died of starvation. It should be noted in considering the schemes adopted to prevent the recurrence of these scourges that although India has a dense population yet she can grow quite sufficient to feed them provided the flood waters could be regulated, and transport made possible to secure an even distribution of food. The construction of a network of roads and railways thus became a necessity so that food could be quickly and easily transported from those parts which had a plentiful supply to the drought areas. Under such viceroys as Sir John, afterwards Lord Lawrence, Lords Mayo and Northbrook, many railways were constructed, and during the tenure of office of the last named the important, broad gauge railway from Delhi to Peshawar was completed. The system of irrigation canals which had previously been established in the Punjab was extended by Lawrence to all parts of India so that the flood waters were not allowed to be wasted but were either diverted to drier areas or held in check for the dry season. Although India in 1896 again suffered from a disastrous famine, the success of these measures has been made apparent in recent years by the immunity from famine which India has enjoyed.

The relief works in connection with these famines and the methods adopted to prevent their recurrence caused the Indian Government to be faced with a new set of difficult

problems. For example, the construction of railways brought all parts of India in closer contact with one another and instead of each area only cultivating for its own wants, food products were transferred from one to another, while raw cotton, which since the American Civil War had been greatly in demand in Britain, was largely exported. The more recent development of the rich supplies of coal and iron has caused an increase in manufactures, and the consequent transference of much of the population to the towns. The insanitary condition under which they live in the towns is largely responsible for the large numbers of deaths from bubonic plague which made its first appearance in the country at the close of the nineteenth century. Problems of sanitation in these areas are rendered difficult by the religious prejudices of the people.

Relief works in connection with these famines were a costly matter and in order to provide sufficient revenue the Government were faced with the problems of taxation while they had to protect the peasant farmer, upon whom much of the future of the country depends, from extortionate money lenders and from the greed of the land-owners. At present the only taxes imposed are those on the land and on salt; the former is really rent for land occupied which is supposed to belong to the Government, the latter is the only means by which the Government can impose a tax which will fall equitably on the whole population. Reforms in the methods of obtaining the revenue during the tenure of office of Earl Mayo mark a great advance in the methods of government. A system of decentralization which placed upon each locality the responsibility for collecting the revenue necessary for its wants, not only was a step towards self-government (with which we will deal later), but placed the revenues of the country on a much firmer footing. Lord Northbrook, who succeeded Lord Ripon, removed the income tax entirely and Lord Ripon, acting under the advice of that capable

financial expert, Major Baring, afterwards Lord Cromer, secured the abolition of all customs duties. It has been wisely said of India, "That a prosperous and contented peasantry was a more solid foundation of British power than a landed aristocracy" and the Tenant-rights Act of Lawrence and Land-tenure Acts, passed under the viceroyalties of Lord Ripon and Lord Dufferin, did much to protect the poor peasant farmer from the rapacious greed of the money-lender and the landowner.

A much needed reform was the abolition of the system of patronage by which posts in the Civil Service were filled during the Company's control of India. The selection of candidates for these appointments is now by open competitive examinations and these candidates are specially prepared for the work they have to perform. These are required not only in the administration of the thirteen provincial governments into which India is divided, but resident Civil Service officials control the districts into which these provinces are sub-divided. These districts, which resemble British counties, are sub-divided into tahsils, while each village has its own native headman who collects the taxes. Three-sevenths of the Indian Empire containing one-fifth of the population are, however, governed by native rulers, but in each there is a British official to look after the mother-country's interests. There are over six hundred of these native states, most of which are smaller than an English county, but Haidarabad, a state of the Deccan, is as large as Great Britain, and Mysore is equal in area to Scotland. These states, although enjoying comparative independence, are not allowed to make treaties with other native states or with foreign powers, and the size of their armies is limited.

The delegation of local government to the natives, and their appointment to positions in the Civil Service depends to a great extent upon education. While each caste and

religion believed in its own rites and customs it was impossible to grant to India the same form of self-government as existed in Canada, and education alone could enlighten the people and relegate their rites and customs to their proper place. Under the Company's rule India consisted of a umbern of communities with differing languages, creeds, and customs, but the construction of railways, resulting in a greater freedom of intercourse between the people of different areas, and the adoption of English as the official language, tended to break down the barriers between these various races. A department of Public Instruction was established in 1854, universities granting diplomas came into existence, and soon public colleges and schools increased in numbers, while elementary education was systematised, inspected, and aided by grants. For these improvements the government owes much to Lord Mayo, who was largely responsible for the founding of the Mayo College for native princes at Ajmere, opened in 1875 by Lord Northbrook. This college formed the model upon which several like institutions in other parts of India were founded. Under Lord Lytton reforms were made in the Indian Civil Service which allowed more natives to be appointed to positions in the government. In more recent years India owes much to Lord Curzon, who remodelled the higher education by altering the constitution of the four universities, by improvements in the teaching, the buildings and the examinations in public schools and colleges and in making better provision for scientific, engineering, medical, and other branches of technical education. He also gave a great impetus to the primary education of the native, and during his tenure of office the number of these schools was materially increased. Addressing an educational conference at Simla he said—

“It cannot be a right thing that three out of every four country villages should still be without a school, and that

not much more than three million boys or less than one-fifth of the total boys of school-going age should be in receipt of primary education. What is the greatest danger in India? What is the source of suspicion, superstition, outbreaks, crime, yes, and also much of the agrarian discontent and suffering among the masses? It is ignorance. And what is the only antidote to ignorance? Knowledge. In proportion as we teach the masses, so shall we make their lot happier, and in proportion as they are happier, so they will become more useful members of the body politic."

Closely connected with this problem of education is the granting of the freedom of the press which, although it caused an outburst of seditious literature, especially in Bombay, yet in many respects has worked for the advancement of the native peoples. In 1911 six hundred and fifty-nine newspapers were published in addition to more than three times that number of periodicals, and over eleven thousand books of which nearly ten thousand were in Indian languages. Education and the freedom of the press were responsible for the rise of a number of native political reformers who at the Indian National Council in 1885 demanded self-government for India, although at the time this was thought by many to be beyond the bounds of possibility.

All these reforms, which have tended to raise the Indian races, have made it more and more possible to grant to these people increased representation in its government. Such representation in earlier days would have been impossible, but now on every local and municipal board, on every district and provincial council, and on the legislative and advisory councils of both the Secretary of State and the Viceroy, representatives from all classes and religions take their share in the Government, while Hindu judges assist in the High Courts. Lord Mayo's reform in the collection of revenue was a great step towards "Home Rule" placing as it did a local

responsibility for each area to regulate its finances to the best advantage. Since that time, until the issue of the constitutional reforms proposed by Lord Minto the Viceroy, acting in conjunction with Lord Morley the Secretary of State for India, the system of self-government has been gradually extended. The Morley-Minto reforms of 1909 provided that all classes and religions of India were to be represented by elected members in the legislative councils, and Indians were to be nominated both on the Secretary of State's advisory council and also on the Viceroy's council at Calcutta.

The results of this wise administration and the granting of measures of self-government were seen at the outbreak of the European War of 1914. The loyalty of the native peoples allowed us to withdraw regiments from India, it provided us with the voluntary and valuable assistance of Ghurka soldiers from Nepal and Sikh forces from the Punjab in both the European and Mesopotamian battlefields, while the competition among the native princes to contribute their share to the Mother Country provided us with a further testimony of their regard for British Government. Such loyalty and self-sacrifice it was felt demanded the granting of the fullest measure of self-government compatible with British responsibilities in this country. Hence in 1917 the Secretary of State and a commission appointed by the Government journeyed to India to confer with the Viceroy and those in authority as to what steps could safely be taken to increase the privileges of self-government. Among the reforms suggested were (1) the creation of an Indian Privy Council, (2) a Council of Native Princes to consider questions affecting native states, (3) the division of the Viceroy's Legislative Assembly into two parts, a lower house to consist of two-thirds elected members, and an upper house known as the Council of State to consist of twenty-one elected and twenty-nine nominated members, (4) the Legislative Council of each province to have

a substantial majority of elected members, and (5) local popular government free from interference by outside control as far as possible. The adoption of these reforms with but little amendment by the British Government in 1919 caused a still greater extension of native control and gave the largest possible share in self-government considering the intricate and difficult problems involved. It now remains to be seen how far these native peoples are capable of undertaking these responsibilities. The recurrence of such risings as took place in the Punjab in 1919 will provide a forcible argument to the opponents of the scheme, but education should do much to enlighten the native population and make them less credulous in believing every rumour set on foot by people anxious to see Britain's downfall.

The words of King Edward's proclamation of 1908 to the native princes of India fifty years after the termination of the company's rule, aptly described the work accomplished since the control of the country was brought directly under the British Government.

"The assumption of direct sovereignty sealed the unity of Indian government and opened a new era. The journey was arduous and the advance may sometimes have seemed slow; but the incorporation of many diversified communities and of some three hundred millions of the human race, under British guidance and control, has proceeded steadfastly and without pause. We survey our labours of the past half century with clear gaze and good conscience."

Before concluding this chapter we will deal with some outlying dependencies of the British Empire situated in the Indian Ocean whose importance is largely dependent upon India and who therefore are under the control of that government. The opening of the Suez Canal converted the Red Sea into a great highway of trade to India and the Far East, hence Aden at its southern entrance which was annexed in

1837 is a most important fortified coaling station. This, together with the neighbouring island of Perim which was added to the British Government in 1857, the island of Socotra south of the Gulf of Aden, and the Kuria Muria Islands off the south coast of Arabia form a protectorate attached to the Bombay Government. The Bahrein Islands situated in the Persian Gulf are also supervised by an agent of the Indian Government. South of Bombay are the Laccadive and Maldive groups of islands, the former being attached to the Madras Government, the latter administered from Ceylon.

In the Bay of Bengal are the Andaman and Nicobar Islands forming a continuation southward of the Arakan Yoma Mountains of Burma. The former have been used as an Indian convict settlement since 1858, while the latter were added to India in 1869.

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## CHAPTER IX.

### CEYLON AND THE FAR EAST.

IN the previous volume we read that the East India Company withdrew from Bantam in the East Indies and abandoned their struggle with the Dutch in the Eastern Seas mainly to devote their energies to the struggle with France for the possession of India. For years the Dutch held undisputed sway in these Eastern Seas, and carried on a highly lucrative trade. During the French Revolutionary Wars, when Holland was allied to France, it became necessary to annex Ceylon in order that the French should not use it as a base against India.

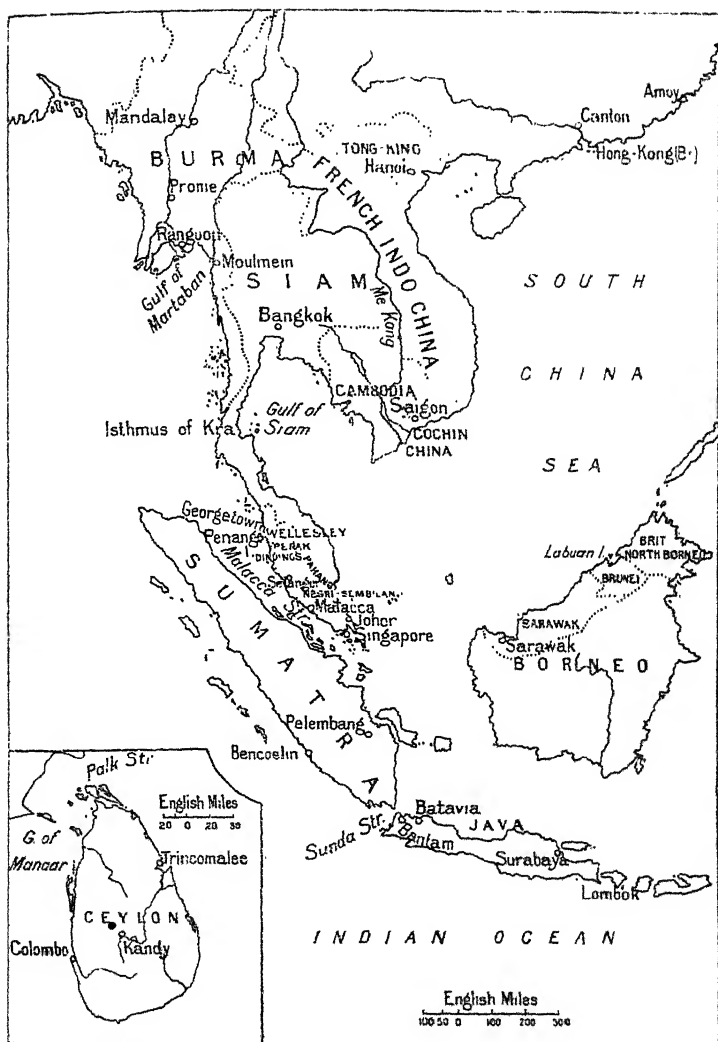
A glance at the surface map will show that Ceylon rises from low, flat shores to a mountainous interior, and is separated from India by the shallow Palk Strait. The



Dutch, who had driven out the earlier Portuguese settlers, only made settlements on the coast, but from 1658 to 1802 established a most profitable trade in cinnamon, spices, and other products. The East India Company took Trincomalee in 1782, but lost it to the French who restored it to the Dutch. In 1795 they again occupied Trincomalee and also Colombo, and by the Treaty of Amiens, 1802, the island passed into British hands. Attempts to develop the interior brought us in contact with the natives who had been untouched by the Dutch, and Kandy was not captured until 1815.

A suitable climate and a highly productive soil made this new possession prosperous from the commencement. Roads were constructed into the interior, and plantations worked by Indian coolie labour provided a profitable export. Tea in large quantities is one of the chief products, and the growth of cultivated rubber and of cocoa nut palms during recent years has rapidly increased. Large quantities of rice, cocoa, cinnamon, cinchona, tobacco, and spices are also exported, and quantities of rubies, sapphires, and other precious stones are found, while pearls are obtained from the shallow Gulf of Manaar. Trincomalee has an excellent natural harbour, but owing to the shallow Palk Strait being unsuitable for ocean liners the new harbour of Colombo is far more important and is a fortified coaling station.

A study of the surface map will show that among the parallel ranges which run from north to south in the corrugated structure of Further India one passes through the Malay Peninsula, and is continued as a backbone of mountains through the East India Islands. The whole of Further India and the East Indies has a heavy rainfall, and this, coupled with a tropical temperature and a highly productive soil, causes a dense vegetation. The climate is, however,



MAP 13.—FURTHER INDIA AND EAST INDIES.

unsuitable for the European except where the moist heat is made more equable by the influence of the sea or by elevation. Hence these regions are not in the main areas for colonisation and settlement, but their wealth in tropical products make them highly lucrative for trade. Thus they were far too valuable to be abandoned entirely by English settlers. In 1684, Bencoein in Sumatra was seized, and attempts were made to get a footing in Borneo, while trade with China was carried on at Canton.

The map shows that the Malacca Strait, between the island of Sumatra and the Malay Peninsula, guarded by Penang Island at its northern entrance and Singapore in the south, forms one of the most important passages leading from the Indian to the Pacific Ocean, and on Singapore converges not only the trade from the East Indies, but also from China, Japan, the western shores of the Americas, and Australia. In 1787 we purchased the island of Penang from the native rajah, and the province of Wellesley, situated behind it, in 1800, while Malacca fell into our hands at the same time as Ceylon. The Dutch working in alliance with the French during the earlier Napoleonic Wars operated from Java, and in order to stop these expeditions Sir Stamford Raffles took Java and became the Governor of our Possessions in this region. His dream of the establishment of a big trading empire in these seas was rudely shattered when Java was handed back to the Dutch after peace was declared, but this dream led to the establishment of a trading settlement at Singapore in 1819, by agreement with the neighbouring Sultan of Johor. Negotiations with the Dutch at this period led to the transfer of the spheres of influence, and exchanges were made between Dutch possessions in the Malay Peninsula and British settlements in Sumatra. In Malacca and Wellesley plantations worked by Tamil coolies were started, and in 1867 these

provinces, together with Penang and Singapore, were separated from the Indian Government, and became a Crown Colony, known as the Straits Settlements.

The inhabitants of the Malay Peninsula consisted largely of Malays and Tamils from Southern India, but the immigration of large numbers of Chinese to work in the valuable tin mines led to native troubles, and when the resulting anarchy threatened the British settlements it was felt necessary to intervene. Active measures were taken, and the native rulers of Perak, Selangor, and Negri Sembilan were persuaded to accept British residents. These later, together with Pahang, agreed to federate under British protection. Five other states, including Johor, are under British protection. Previous to this the coastal province of the Dindings had been annexed, and this together with the Cocos Islands and Christmas Island is under the control of this colony.

Singapore is the largest seaport in the Far East, and more than half of its annual trade of £70,000,000 is with Great Britain or other parts of the Empire. Penang occupies an important, but subservient, position at the northern end of the Strait. Apart from the strategic and commercial value of these ports, the Straits Settlements and the Federated Malay States are highly productive in themselves. The large supplies of gambier, pepper, rice, sago, coffee, and sugar find a ready market, and of recent years the cultivation of rubber has provided a valuable export. Some of the richest supplies of tin in the world are to be found in this peninsula, and the abundant revenue obtained from it not only frees the inhabitants from taxation, but has provided the capital for the construction of 600 miles of railways.

The termination of the East India Company's monopoly of trade with China opened a field of enterprise to British merchants. Among these was James Brooke, who, with the object of securing a large share in the trade in these seas,

obtained from the Ruler of Brunei the district of Sarawak, on the north-western coast of Borneo. Here, by the goodwill of the native chiefs, he ruled over a large area, to which in 1846 was added the island of Labuan. In 1878, another British subject obtained rights in Northern Borneo, and under a charter granted by the British Government the North Borneo Company was formed. When later the Ruler of Brunei placed himself under British protection, the whole northern half of the island came under British influence, while the southern half was administered by the Dutch. The drawback to these settlements for purposes of trade is that the equator passes through the island, and therefore the island is subject to great heat and heavy rainfall. As a result the lower coastlands are unhealthy and malarial.

The numerous British merchants who gathered at Canton to share in China's trade caused friction with the Chinese, and, as a result of the short war which followed, Hong-Kong became a British possession in 1841. A second war in 1856-58 resulted in a strip of the mainland opposite Hong-Kong being added to that possession, while more ports were opened to British merchants, and a British Envoy was sent to Peking, the capital.

At this time the French Emperor, eager to distract the attention of his critics from his domestic policy, declared war on the King of Annam, who was accused of ill-treating Christian missionaries, and Cochin China became French, while Cambodia was placed under their protection. The French Republic added Tong-King to their possessions in 1884, and Annam later became a French protectorate. The French designs on the whole of the Mekong Basin and the coastal provinces alarmed the British, especially when the French fleet blockaded Bangkok. Eventually an agreement was reached by which Siam was created a buffer state, and its independence guaranteed by the two nations. For

years China had been shut off from the remainder of the world by the lofty mountain barriers of Central Asia, and had developed a civilisation differing entirely from that of the Western World. The demands of European rivals from without, which included not only France and Britain, but Germany, Russia, and even Italy, and revolution from within, caused this great empire to totter. In the south of China the revolt of the Taepings against their northern Manchu rulers threatened the European settlements at Shanghai. This was finally quelled by General Gordon, the hero of Khartum. Risings also took place in the north-west, and Russia made this a pretext to seize territory on her boundaries. Political troubles with Korea led in 1894 to war with Japan, when both the army and navy were completely beaten, and Japan secured the island of Formosa, together with a large war indemnity.

While China was in this weak state Germany seized Kiau-Chau, and demanded a sphere of influence in the Shantung Peninsula, Russia obtained control over Port Arthur and Manchuria, and Britain annexed Wei-hai-wei in order to watch both Russia and Germany. Britain also annexed the mainland behind Hong-Kong, while France also added to her territories.

The failure of the Chinese in these wars, and the weakness of their Government in dealing with the European demands, raised the discontent of the population, and when the young Emperor proposed domestic reforms, which cut at the root of their religious beliefs, the Boxer risings took place. The people were called upon to annihilate the intruders, and restore the country to its original condition, and the Europeans, who were shut up in the British Residency, were only relieved by a combined force which had to fight its way to Peking.

Following the Boxer Rising China began to adopt western

ideas; not only did she create a new army and navy, but railway construction was carried out, and western methods of government adopted. The demand of Russia for the ice-free port at Vladivostock was quite legitimate, especially when we remember that country had no outlet on an open sea in Europe, but when Russia carried a branch of that railway southward to Port Arthur, and later through Korea to Fusan, opposite the shores of Japan, and proceeded to develop these areas, war ensued. In the Russian-Japanese War the former country, badly handicapped by her long lines of communication, was defeated by Japan, who took over the control of Southern Manchuria, including Port Arthur and Kōrēa. Russia's ambitions in the Far East were thus checked, and an Anglo-Japanese Treaty, signed in 1905, aimed at preserving the *status quo* in this region.

A revolution in China caused the overthrow of the Manchu dynasty and the establishment of a republic, but the government of the country is in a most unstable condition. In 1914, on the outbreak of the European War, Japan, who was in alliance with Britain and France, drove the Germans from Kiau-Chau. The assistance which Japan has given to the allies in this war in guarding the trade routes of the Pacific and thus freeing British ships for other purposes has been a great advantage, and one not perhaps fully appreciated by the allies. Following the termination of that war Japan assumed control of those islands in the Pacific Ocean north of the equator which previously belonged to Germany.

The untold supplies of coal, iron, copper, and other minerals in China, the capacity for producing enormous quantities of raw silk and cotton, together with sufficient food supplies to feed her dense population, will give this great nation an advantage in the race for industrial and commercial supremacy. Thus, instead of buying from Europeans large quantities of manufactured goods she will

be able to compete with them in the world's markets. Japan has already awakened to her possibilities and many people dread what will happen when a reformed China may threaten the world, and to many this "Yellow Peril" is nearer than others imagine.

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## CHAPTER X.

### THE EMPIRE'S GREAT TEST.

IN the previous pages we have traced the growth of the British Empire, not from any well-defined scheme, engineered by the diplomacy of politicians, or fostered by the government, but by the individual efforts of colonisers from the Mother Country—men who, though often thwarted in their task, had that British perseverance, grit and resource which were bound to tell in the long run and which eventually made their enterprises successful. We have seen how a foolish government unable to appreciate the relations which should bind these colonies to the Mother Land lost the Atlantic States of North America; states which extended their borders to the Pacific Coast, and by developing their vegetable and mineral resources became one of the leading powers of the world. We have read how at another period the lack of interest and appreciation of these great outlying dominions displayed by the British Government, nearly lost us all these great possessions, and how eventually it was forced to realize the value of these dominions, and having done so, it sought to establish each on a firm foundation and bind them to the Mother Land by granting to each the largest share of self-government compatible with the whole Empire's interest.



At last it learnt the truth of the following words from Burke—

“My hold of the colonies is in the close affection which grows from common names, from kindred blood, from similar privileges and equal protection. These are ties, which, though light as air, are as strong as links of iron. Let the colonies always keep the idea of their social rights associated with your Government, they will cling and grapple to you; and no force under Heaven would be of power to tear them from their allegiance. But let it be understood, that your Government may be one thing, and their privileges another, that these two things may exist without any mutual relation; the cement is gone; the cohesion is loosened, and everything hastens to decay and dissolution. As long as you have the wisdom to keep the sovereign authority of this country as the sanctuary of liberty, the sacred temple consecrated to our common faith, wherever the chosen race and sons of England worship freedom, they will turn their faces towards you. The more they multiply, the more friends you will have; the more ardently they love liberty, the more perfect will be their obedience. Slavery they can have anywhere. It is a weed that grows in every soil. They may have it from Spain, they may have it from Prussia. But, until you become lost to all feelings of your true interest and your national dignity, freedom they can have from none but you. This is the commodity of price, of which you have the monopoly. This is the true art of navigation which binds to you the commerce of the colonies and through them the wealth of the world. Deny them this participation of freedom and you break that sole bond, which originally made, and must still preserve, the unity of the Empire. Do not entertain so weak an imagination, as that your registers and your bonds, your affidavits and your sufferances, your cockets and your clearances, are what form the great securities of your commerce. Do not dream that your letters of office, and your instructions and your suspending clauses, are the things that hold together the great contexture of this mysterious whole. These things do not make your Government. Dead instruments, passive tools as they are, it is the spirit of the British communion that gives all their life and efficacy to

them It is the spirit of the British constitution which, infused through the mighty mass, pervades, feeds, unites, invigorates, vivifies every part of the Empire, even down to the minutest member."

The grant of responsible government and the complete freedom which the great self-governing dominions enjoy in commercial matters paved the way to the consideration of a means of securing a closer union between Britain and her colonies Imperial conferences are held periodically to which representatives from all parts of the Empire are invited. At these, discussions take place, not only upon methods of defence of this great Empire, but also upon commercial tariffs and the granting of more favoured terms to the Mother Land than to other nations The extension of these imperial conferences will no doubt do more than any thing else to knit the various members of the Empire and it is the opinion of many that it will soon pave the way to the formation of an Imperial Federal Parliament Speaking of Imperial Federation in 1875 the Right Hon W E. Forster said —

"I believe that our union with our colonies will not be severed, because I believe that we and they will more and more prize this union and become convinced that it can be preserved only by looking forward to association on equal terms, in other words, I believe that our Colonial Empire will last, because, no longer striving to rule our colonies as dependencies when they have become strong enough to be independent, we shall welcome them as our partners in a common and mighty Empire

"All that is required now is to imbue them and ourselves with the desire that the union should last, with the determination that the Empire shall not be broken up: to replace the idea of eventual independence, which means disunion, with that of association on equal terms, which means union. If this be done we need not fear that, at the fitting time, this last idea will realise itself"

The principles of self-government which have now been applied to practically all our over-seas dominions have been more than justified in their results. These countries are not only capable of settling their own internal affairs and promoting schemes for the welfare of their inhabitants, but now take a prominent part in the commerce of the world. Side by side with this development has grown up a strong bond of union with the Mother Country, and the succeeding pages will show how all her sons are not only proud of their kinship, but in the hour of danger are prepared to sacrifice their all to maintain the independence of that vast Empire of which we are so justly proud. Both in the Sudan campaign and in the Boer War these dominions gave Britain their practical support, and the following sonnet written by Theodore Watts Dunton in reply to the assertion that Britain in the Boer War stood alone without an ally, is specially applicable here

"She stands ally nor friend has she,  
 Saith Europe of our England—her who bore  
 Drake, Blake, Nelson—Warrior Queen who wore  
 Light's conquering glaive that strikes the conquered free  
 Alone—From Canada comes o'er the sea  
 And from that English coast with coral shore  
 The old-world cry Europe hath heard of yore  
 From Dover Cliffs Ready, aye ready we  
 'Europe' saith England, 'hath forgot my boys,  
 Forgot how tall in yonder golden zone,  
 Neath Austral skies, my youngest born have grown  
 (Bearers of bayonets now and swords for toys)  
 Forgot 'mid boltless thunder—harmless noise—  
 The sons with whom old England stands alone

It was, however, in the Great European War of 1914-19 that the Empire's sons showed how strong were the links that held them to the Mother Country. No greater justification of the wisdom of our methods of government could

be found Greater opportunities of throwing off the yoke of the Mother Country they never had, and yet instead of availing themselves of these they showed they were prepared to sacrifice not only wealth and products but their own lives in order to maintain the integrity of our Great Empire. Silenced were all the critics who said that in the hour of danger these self-governing dominions would leave the Mother Country to defend herself, and their intense patriotism was the admiration of all the allies and one of the deadliest blows to Germany, who hoped by fomenting strife to detach them from their allegiance.

This European War caused such an upheaval that it will be well to turn aside and consider some of the great underlying causes. In the previous volume we traced the rise and fall of the Hansa League, a great German commercial alliance which controlled the North and Baltic Seas trade. We also noted the devastating effects of the Thirty Years' War which desolated Germany and left her split up into a number of small weak states mainly under the dominion of the Emperor of Austria. We also read about the rise of Frederick the Great the King of Prussia who with his well-trained army was enabled to annex Silesia and other parts of Germany and bid defiance to the Austrian power. From this time onward Prussia became paramount until it was powerful enough to weld all the smaller states which comprised Germany into one big empire with the King of Prussia as German Emperor or Kaiser. All this took place during the period when France and Britain were great rivals in the establishment of colonies in the newly-discovered lands of the world, and hence when Germany became one of the great European Powers and turned her attention to overseas expansion she found that these newly-discovered lands were split up among the other European nations. Hence Germany had no colonial possessions before the European War except four areas in Africa,

a settlement in China, and a few islands in the Pacific Ocean

Although Germany's ambitions were thus frustrated, Wilhelm II when he came to the throne concentrated his attention on building a great fleet, and public utterances by the German ministers and the Kaiser himself made it clear that this fleet was to be used as a weapon against Britain. Britain with her extensive dominions and her large overseas trade must be weakened if Germany was to expand as she desired. Nor was this bitter feeling lessened by British sympathy with the United States in her war with Spain, by the support of French claims in Morocco, or by alliances with Japan and agreements with Russia which prevented any German extension in China. In Africa Germany attempted to extend her territories east and west so that they reached across the continent, but the genius of Cecil Rhodes and success in the South African War rendered this impossible.

Germany also had designs on a great overland route to the Persian Gulf and to India. On a map of Europe in 1914 you will notice that the Orient Express Route passes through Germany to Vienna, then follows the Danube to Belgrade, and crosses the Balkan Peninsula to Constantinople, passing through the states of Serbia, Bulgaria, and Turkey. The close alliance with Austria, and the working agreement between Austria and Bulgaria, together with an agreement with Turkey, gave Germany the practical control of this railway. Only the Serbian section was uncontrolled, and it is important to remember this in connection with the declaration of war on Serbia, which was the beginning of the war. Opposite Constantinople, on the Bosphorus, stands Scutari, and from this port German capital was building a railway through Turkish Territory to the Persian Gulf, where Germany had obtained some concessions while Britain was busy with the South African War. These attempts were frustrated by an

international agreement that the last section of the railway, reaching to the Persian Gulf, should not be controlled by any one power

Although Germany thus proved her hostility to Britain, everything possible was done to maintain peace. It should be noted also that Germany did not plunge the whole continent into war until the Kiel Canal had been so widened and deepened that it was possible for her modern "Dreadnoughts" to pass through it from the Baltic to the North Seas

Coupled with Germany's ambition to oust Britain from her position as the leading sea-power, was the Franco-German rivalry engendered by the Franco-Prussian War of 1871. Although Bismarck's attempt to crush the military power of France proved a failure, yet the transfer of Alsace-Lorraine proved a sore point, and both countries were constantly increasing their land forces in view of the conflict which was bound to ensue. At this time France stood alone; disputes in Egypt and about fishing rights in Newfoundland prevented an alliance with Britain, while Bismarck was using his diplomacy to make friendly overtures to Russia. The diplomacy of King Edward VII, leading to an "entente" between Britain and France in 1904, and the closer agreements between France, Britain, and Russia in 1907 were staggering blows to German diplomacy. The Triple Entente between Russia, France, and Britain was thus at this time opposed to the Triple Alliance between Germany, Austria, and Italy, and many politicians thought the "balance of power" would prevent war.

Germany's designs in the Near East became visible in the Balkan Wars of the first decade of the twentieth century, and intrigues with Turkey secured her mining concessions and other rights in that country, while Austria's annexation of Bosnia-Herzegovina, and her intrigues with Bulgaria showed

the Teutonic designs in this area. The defeat of the Turks, and later that of the Bulgarians, were further blows to Germany, while the war in Tripoli between Turkey and Italy nearly caused a break in the Triple Alliance.

The assassination of the Archduke Francis Ferdinand and his wife, followed by the Austrian accusations that Serbian officials were connected with the deed, was the spark which set alight the smouldering heap, and within a few days more than three-quarters of Europe was plunged into war. The mobilisation of Austria's troops led Russia to follow her example in support of Serbia. This led Germany to threaten both Russia and France with an ultimatum, which a few days later led to a declaration of war with Russia, and an advance of German troops through Belgium and Luxembourg into France. Germany thought that domestic troubles and Irish problems would compel Britain to remain neutral, but quite apart from the fact that it was bound to defend Belgium from this gross violation of her rights, it was in Britain's own interests necessary to prevent France from being crushed, as Germany with an extended coast line on the North Sea and Atlantic coasts, and with the acquisition of French colonial possessions, would have been a dangerous rival to our power. Hence an ultimatum, presented to Germany on 2nd August 1914, led to a declaration of war two days later.

It would be impossible, in the limited scope of this book, to give even a brief survey of this great European conflict, a war on the most gigantic scale possible, and one which altered the whole social and political conditions of the human race. German success would have meant the downfall of the British Empire and the ruin of British commerce and trade, and directly war was declared and the news was cabled to our great self-governing Dominions the whole Empire responded like magic to the mother-country's need.

Britain not only controlled all the sea routes, and thus was able to provide the allies with the tremendous food supplies and munitions of war necessary, but was able to sweep the Germans from the sea. Our small army, supplemented by eager volunteers, soon landed in France, and was able to assist in stemming that first German onrush to Paris in the early days of the war. Later, when it was found necessary to increase the size of this army to hold our own against the German millions, who were armed with all the latest devices that their scientists could invent to annihilate their opponents, conscription was enforced for the first time in the history of Britain. A stupendous army of 6,000,000 men was thus formed, while in Britain all work that was not of national importance was suspended, and women assisted the men who were left in increasing the supply of munitions of war. All the sacrifice of man-power and material by the Mother Country would have been insufficient to the demands made upon us if it had not been for the valuable contributions of all parts of the Empire in this great hour of need. Not only did the native princes of India and elsewhere contribute large sums of money to meet the enormous expense, but food supplies and munitions of war were sent, and more important than all large numbers of men hastened to assist the Empire in its hour of need.

The assistance of the Ghurkas, Sikhs, and other native soldiers from India in that first winter campaign, with all its great hardships, and later their help in Mesopotamia, Palestine, and East Africa will not soon be forgotten. The bravery of the Australian troops in the Gallipoli campaign and on the western front won the admiration of all, while the Australian fleet was of great assistance in the Pacific. The equipment of a Canadian army by that Dominion, the application of conscription in that area when such a step was rendered necessary in the



mother country, and the prowess and bravery of these forces in the field of battle, were of incalculable advantage, and the contribution of munitions and food supplies proved of great assistance. The New Zealand fighting force covered itself with glory and renown by its achievements in the battlefield, and each and everyone of the British possessions provided its quota to the assistance of the Empire. In South Africa, where the Germans began to foment strife by appeals to the Boers, coupled with promises that Germany would establish an Afrikander Republic and drive the British out, Britain had the best example of the wisdom of granting self-government. Only a few rebellious spirits were roused by the German appeals, and the loyalty of both Briton and Boer in South Africa soon led to the defeat of the insurgents, and South African Forces commanded by Boer Generals who once had fought against us, took the German colony of South-West Africa. A South African contingent was also largely responsible for the defeat of the enemy in German East Africa, while others came and assisted in the European arena. The valuable assistance of General Smuts in London, and General Botha, who was at the head of affairs in South Africa, was specially helpful.

Despite all this assistance the allies were unable to contend against the huge trained armies of Germany and Austria, assisted by Bulgaria and Turkey, and but for the intervention of the United States of America might have been in a precarious condition. For a long time the United States remained neutral, but the brutal methods of the Huns in attacking defenceless cities by Zeppelin air-ships and by aeroplanes, and thus killing unprotected women and children, and their submarine attacks on both allied and neutral unarmed ships, with a view to starving Britain into surrender, led them to declare war on Germany. Their timely

intervention not only caused large quantities of food supplies to be sent to the allies when matters had reached a critical condition, but their rapidly trained army reached the Franco-Belgian war-area at a time when the Russian Revolutionaries had made an ignoble peace with the Germans. This peace liberated large numbers of German troops for the western front and Austrians for the Italian border. American assistance to the allied armies at this juncture enabled Britain to prevent the Germans from reaching their objectives, and allowed of the adoption of a counter-offensive which was the turning-point of the war. You will remember how completely successful this counter-offensive was, and how, after four months of continuous success, the allies forced the enemy to sue for an armistice on 11th November 1919. The Peace of Paris in 1919 redivided Central Europe upon the basis of nationality. The intervention of the United States was thus of incalculable benefit to the allies, but it was more, it brought together the two leading powers of the world, both consisting of English-speaking people, in the closest bonds of union. Faced with the annihilation of the freedom-loving peoples of the world, the points of dispute which had separated these people for so many centuries paled into insignificance. The two nations were thus united in bonds of brotherhood, both were actuated by the same ideals, both sought to protect the small nations of the world from the attacks of a military power whose sole desire was to increase her territory, and was willing to use any dishonourable means to attain that end. If, as a result of this war, the links which bind our great Empire together are made still stronger, and a closer brotherhood exists between the two English-speaking peoples, the war will have achieved a very great object, and if to this we add the elimination of the possibility of another military autocracy wishing to dominate the world,

then the life blood of Britain and her sons, which has been spilt in this great war, will not have been in vain, and their supreme sacrifice will have hastened the dawn of a new era, an era of peace and goodwill among the nations of the globe

May we find as ages run,  
The mother featured in the son,  
And may yours for ever be  
That old strength and constancy  
Which has made your fathers great  
In our ancient island State,  
And wherever her flag fly,  
Glorying between sea and sky  
Makes the might of Britain known;  
Britons, hold your own

Britons fought her sons of yore,  
Britain failed; and never more  
Careless of our growing kin,  
Shall we sin our father's sin,  
Men that in a narrower day—  
Unprophetic rulers they—  
Drove from out the mother's nest  
That young eagle of the West  
To forage for herself alone;  
Britons, hold your own!

Sharers of our glorious past  
Brothers, must we part at last?  
Shall we not thro' good and ill  
Cleave to one another still?  
Britain's myriad voices call,  
"Sons, be welded each and all,  
Into one imperial whole,  
One with Britain, heart and soul!  
One life, one flag, one fleet, one Throne!  
Britons, hold your own!"

*Tennyson*

## CHAPTER XI.

## COMMUNICATIONS AND SEA POWER.

IN this book and the earlier volume we have traced the growth of the great British Empire, and seen how it has been extended into all parts of the world. The fact that the sun never sets upon the British Empire is one of which her sons may all justly be proud, but it has its advantages and disadvantages. It is an advantage because British possessions having varying types of climate can produce all the requisites of a highly-civilised nation, and can be self-supporting if required. Not only can the products of temperate and tropical possessions be interchanged, but the raw supplies and food products can be sent to the industrial peoples of the mother country in exchange for manufactured goods, and in times of drought or famine in any particular area the excess products of another region can be transported to supply the deficiency. The serious disadvantage lies in the fact that these possessions are scattered, and unless we can maintain our control of the sea and the great ocean highways of commerce our great Empire must soon fall to pieces. In reading of the early Roman Empire we learnt how the Romans constructed great roads which linked their outlying dominions with their capital, and just as these highways were necessary to the maintenance of that power and were the means by which transport and communication were made possible, so in a similar manner the control of the great ocean highways is vital to the British Empire, and the loss of the control of the sea would be a dangerous blow to our greatness.

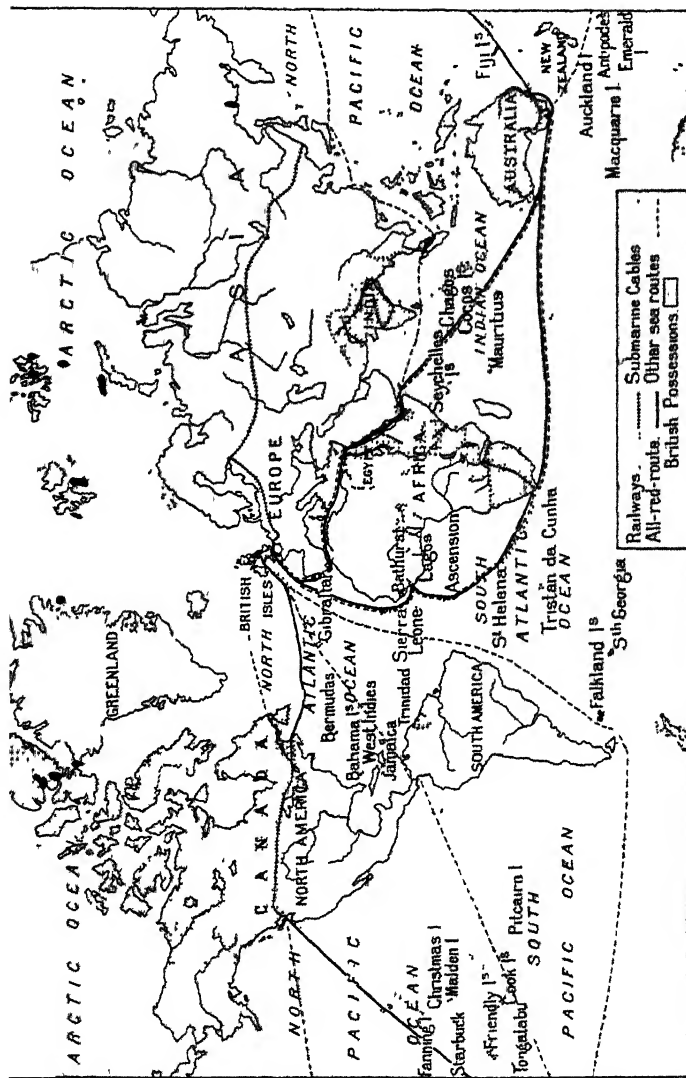
Long before the European War of 1914-19 this command of the sea was vital to Britain, and in considering the increase in naval armaments it was necessary to maintain

"the two-power standard," which means that her navy must be equivalent to that of any two other nations added together. The rapid increase in naval construction in the years preceding the European War, especially in Germany, increased the demands for the navy, and the construction of the first "Dreadnought" in 1906, although it marked a big advance in naval construction, and was a triumph for British naval construction, lost them the long lead they had hitherto held in naval armaments by rendering obsolete and unfit for service many of the older ships. Germany and other nations thus tried to rival Britain in sea-power, and Canada, Australia, and New Zealand came to the assistance of the mother country either by contributing to the Imperial navy or by building subsidiary fleets to guard the trade routes in the Pacific, and so help Britain to hold her own on the ocean.

The submarine menace in the Great War brought home to every citizen of the mother country how much they depended on the control of the great ocean highways for their food products, but although for a period these new inventions were able to dislocate our shipping, and caused the loss of many ships and many lives, yet in the end the difficulty was overcome, and methods were devised by which they were destroyed.

Unlike other nations Britain began with no well-defined plans, and it was the French who first taught them the strategic value of these intermediate seaports on the great ocean highways. Thus when the French from the island of Mauritius attacked Indian ships it became necessary to take that island, and similarly to take Cape Town and Ceylon while Napoleon's idea of a route either from Egypt and the Red Sea, or overland *via* Persia, led to the establishment of British influence in these areas.

Turning to a map of the British Empire in your atlas we will study some of these great highways of commerce, and



MAP 14 --THE WORLD. ALL-RED ROUTES.

note the intermediate ports on them, and how they became part of the British Empire. The routes across the Atlantic to Canada and the United States require no calling port between the two continents, as modern ocean liners can now do the journey well within a week. The opening of the Panama Canal and the consequent increase in trade by this route, both with the Pacific shores of the New World and with Australasia, may bring the Bermudas into prominence. These were discovered by the Spanish sailor Bermudez in 1515, and were rediscovered by Sir George Somers in 1609, and later colonised by the Virginian Company. Ten of the islands are inhabited, and these having a mild, equable climate have been largely frequented by American tourists. Ireland Island contains a naval station and dockyard.

In the South Atlantic are the three British Islands of Ascension, St. Helena, and Tristan da Cunha, the two former lie in the direct track of vessels which journey between Britain and Cape Town. The three islands are the tops of submerged ridges in the South Atlantic, and are of volcanic formation. Ascension owes its name to its being sighted on Ascension Day by the Portuguese, but was not occupied by the British until 1815. Georgetown, on the north-west, is the chief harbour and calling-port. St. Helena, 800 miles to the south-east of Ascension, was first used by Dutch East India merchants, but passed into the hands of the English East India Company in 1671. It is chiefly famous as the place to which Napoleon was exiled in 1815, but during the South African War it was used as a prison for captured Boers. The island is productive, and its harbour of Jamestown, on the sheltered north-west is a coaling station. Tristan da Cunha is a wind-swept, barren island, too far south to be of much commercial importance, and its only intercourse with the world is when a friendly man-of-war calls. It was occupied by the British in 1815,

but has been of little value. The same is true of the island of South Georgia, which lies much farther south, on the 54th parallel of latitude.

Many vessels to Australia, especially cargo boats, call at Cape Town, and from there with the assistance of the Roaring Forties journey eastward to Australia and New Zealand, and instead of returning by the same route continue straight on, and so round Cape Horn, the south extremity of South America. Many of these experience strong gales off this coast, hence the British repairing dock at Port Stanley, in the Falkland Isles, is valuable. This group of islands was discovered first by an English sailor, named Davis, and although for a short time a French colony, it was occupied by British settlers, although not formally annexed by Britain until 1832, when it was decided to establish a whaling station. Lying in the track of the Roaring Forties, they consist of barren moorlands, having cold winters and wet summers, and are unproductive. In the Antarctic Seas are the South Shetlands and South Orkney Groups, both British possessions.

Turning now to the Indian Ocean, we notice that, in addition to the "Roaring Forties" route between Cape Town and Australasia, other routes run north-eastward from Cape Town and Durban to Bombay, Colombo, and Calcutta. Those journeying to the two former places call at Mauritius, as also do boats from Australia. This island, we have already learnt, was taken from the French, although previous to that it had been held successively by the Portuguese and the Dutch. It is very beautiful, and its fertile soil, worked by Indian coolie labour, produces sugar, vanilla, and other products. The white population consists almost entirely of French Catholics. The chief port, St Louis, is connected by rail with all parts of the coast.

Rodriguez is a small fertile volcanic island, lying 350 miles to the east of Mauritius, while the Chagros Group, 1100



miles to the north-east, is largely of coral islands. Six hundred miles north of Madagascar and 900 miles from Zanzibar, with which there is steamship communication, is the Seychelle Group of islands, while to the south-west is the Amirante Group. The chief island, Mahe, was captured by the British in 1794, and for a while it were governed from Mauritius, but now the two groups of islands form a separate Crown Colony.

Before leaving the Indian Ocean, notice the British routes which pass through the Suez canal, to India and Australia. These pass through the Mediterranean Sea, one of the most important highways of commerce, and one that it is very necessary for Britain to control. The capture of Gibraltar in 1704, and its subsequent siege from 1779 to 1783 have previously been referred to. A barren promontory, three miles long, on the west side of which is stationed the British garrison, guards the gateway leading to the Mediterranean, and during recent years the construction of a large natural harbour has improved its facilities as a coaling station, a calling port, and a repairing dock for men-of-war.

The channel which separates Sicily from North Africa is rendered much narrower by the continental shelf which borders both coasts. Sixty miles south of Sicily, and lying on the edge of this shelf is the Maltese group of islands. They formed the possession of varying powers until 1530, when they were given to the Knights of St John by the Emperor Charles V. The capture of them by Napoleon on his way to India in 1798 caused the British to take them successfully in 1800. The Maltese inhabitants and the Italian and Jewish settlers have been little disturbed. The capital Valetta has a fine harbour, and forms the headquarters of the Mediterranean Fleet.

Cyprus, which lies in the eastern corner of the Mediterranean, is out of the track of the Suez Route. Its value as a naval base was of importance, however, until our

hold on Egypt proved sufficient to guard the Suez Canal. This island, which was lost by Venice to the Turks in 1570, passed into English hands in 1878 by treaty with the Sultan. A mountain ridge runs throughout the whole length of the island, from which short rivers descend to the sea. It has a Mediterranean climate of warm, wet winters, and hot, dry summers, and hence produces corn, wine, cotton, and silk.

The importance of the Suez Canal has already been referred to in Chapter VII, and the historical geography of ~~Aden~~ and the islands in the adjacent seas in Chapter VIII. On the map notice the routes from Aden to Karachi and Bombay, and those which call at Colombo on their way to Calcutta and Madras, or Singapore, or south-eastwards to Western and South Australia. Notice that the latter route passes near to the Christmas and Cocos Islands. These form dependencies of the Strait Settlements. Christmas Island is noted for its rich phosphate deposits.

Routes converge on Singapore from the East India Islands, from Australasia and from Japan and China. In the Pacific Ocean notice that the routes from the East Indies run to the ports of Eastern Australia, or direct to New Zealand, while others from the Indian Ocean call at the ports of West Australia, South Australia, Tasmania, and New Zealand. Routes from Australia and New Zealand run northward through the Fiji Islands or Tonga Group to Honolulu in the Sandwich Islands, which has steamship communication both with Panama and with Singapore.

In the Southern Pacific are many groups of islands either of volcanic or coral formation which form British Possessions. Most of them lie within the tropics, but their climate is rendered more equable by the sea. They produce sugar, copra, and fruits mostly. The most important group is the Fiji Islands, which lie on the 180th meridian. These were first visited by Captain Cook, but it was not until

1874 they were annexed by the British Government. West of the Fiji Group, and nearer to Australia, are the Solomon Islands, Banks Island, and the New Hebrides, to the east lie the Tonga or Friendly Islands, Harvey or Cook Island, and the Society Islands, and farther north are the Marshall and Gilbert Islands. These are only some of the many British Possessions in these southern seas, but sufficient has now been written to show that, in addition to these extensive continental dominions, Britain has numerous island possessions, which, being used as naval bases, coaling stations, and calling ports, are essential to the maintenance ~~of the~~ control of the great ocean highways.

As Britain has possessions in all parts of the world, it is possible to travel round the world by an All-Red Route, that is by a route passing only through British territories, or across great ocean highways which can be navigated by calling only at British ports. Trace such a possible route on the map of the world. From ~~London~~ <sup>London</sup> cross the Atlantic to Halifax in Nova Scotia, which is linked by rail to Montreal and Quebec. Thence it would be possible either to follow the Canadian Pacific Railway to Vancouver (*see* Chapter II.), or to take the more northerly course of the Grand Trunk Pacific, *via* Winnipeg, Edmonton, and the Yellow Head Pass to ~~Prince~~ Rupert on the Pacific coast, at the mouth of the Skeena River. A few days journey by boat from the latter port would bring one to the Asiatic terminus of the Siberian Railway, but an All-Red Route from these ports would take us in a south-westward direction to Fanning Island, just north of the equator, and thence, *via* the Fiji Islands, to either New Zealand or Australia. From Australia it would be possible to cross the Indian Ocean either by a direct line to Aden, passing through the Chagos Islands, or *via* Mauritius and the Seychelles. From Aden the boat would pass through the Red Sea and the Suez Canal to Malta and

Gibraltar, and thence back to Britain. The traveller might take the alternative route of crossing the southern part of the Indian Ocean and calling at Cape Town, and then turning northward across the Atlantic Ocean, *via* St Helena, Ascension, and Sierra Leone, reach Great Britain.

Mention has been made in Chapter I of the excellent results of applying the principles of electricity to the telegraph and the telephone, and the laying of the cables across the great oceans in bringing the outlying portions of our great Dominions in closer contact with the mother country. Several cables now connect both the British Isles and Europe to Canada and the United States, while one from Cork, passing through the Azores, Ascension, and St Helena links Britain to Cape Town. Across the Indian Ocean a line runs from Durban to Mauritius, thence *via* the Cocos Islands to the East Indies and Singapore, which latter port is connected by cable to Madras. From Cape Town a cable crosses the Indian Ocean to Perth in Western Australia. Across the Pacific an All-Red Cable Route connects Vancouver to the cable station at Fanning Island, and thence *via* the Fiji Islands and Norfolk Island, both in Australia and New Zealand.

The more recent invention of wireless telegraphy has rendered unnecessary the further laying of cables, and before the European War the British Government decided to erect a chain of wireless telegraph stations to connect distant parts of the Empire with the motherland. The stations recommended at present are situated in England, Egypt, British East Africa, South Africa, India, and the Malay Peninsula, and it is hoped that Australia and New Zealand will erect stations to form part of the chain. By this means the whole Empire will be brought into the closest intercourse, and this should make for unity of action. The mistakes of the past would probably have been avoided had this intercourse been possible. The settlers in the

distant parts of the Empire were a people apart, and the mother country did not, and could not, understand their difficulties any more than the settlers could realise the motives which inspired the actions of the Government in Britain.

The study of the development and consolidation of this great Empire should teach us many lessons. After much sacrifice and hardship, after many misunderstandings, was accomplished the great work begun by the individual efforts of British pioneers in all parts of the globe, and an Empire was founded upon the most sure foundations. ~~This~~ This Empire was not only founded, but it was tested and for the great European War was a convincing demonstration of the statesmanship which had succeeded in combining the sovereignty of the Crown at the centre of the Empire with the freest and fullest development of local autonomy elsewhere. The sacrifices both of the mother land and every part of the Empire have given to us a ~~great~~ and glorious heritage, and the privileges each of us enjoys as children of the Empire were won by the sacrifice of thousands of noble lives. These same privileges bring with them corresponding duties. If we are to maintain the integrity of this great Empire we must shoulder manfully our national responsibilities, and endeavour while young fit ourselves for the work. In later years the right to vote must be used to further the interests of the State as a whole, and should once more the trumpet blast of war call us to repel the attacks of an enemy, we must respond readily, and do all in our power to preserve unbroken the greatness and independence of our Empire.

